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A Sociological Analysis of Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction of Police in Selected Rural and Urban Parishes in Louisiana.

Jenny Eva decker Phillips

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PHILLIPS, Jenny Eva Decker, 1925-
A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF OCCUPATIONAL
STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION OF POLICE
IN SELECTED RURAL AND URBAN PARISHES IN
LOUISIANA.

The Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College,
Ph.D., 1976
Sociology, general

Xerox University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND
JOB SATISFACTION OF POLICE IN SELECTED
RURAL AND URBAN PARISHES IN LOUISIANA

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Sociology

by
Jenny Eva Decker Phillips
B.A., Louisiana Tech University, 1968
M.A., Louisiana Tech University, 1969
December, 1976

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Intellectual debts accumulate over time until it is difficult to mark their beginnings. Although names cannot be specified, I am grateful to the teachers, colleagues, and students who have helped me to learn and want to learn, to teach and want to teach.

It is easier to identify the persons to whom I am indebted for this particular work. I was especially fortunate to have had my particular dissertation committee. Dr. Thomas J. Durant, Jr., the committee chairman, was helpful, patient, and always encouraging. He gave of his own time so generously that it is difficult to properly thank him. Whatever merits this study may have are largely due to his efforts on my behalf and to Dr. Michael D. Grimes, who introduced me to the mysteries of the computer, and with kindness and great good humor helped me over the rough spots. Dr. Perry Howard, who helped me to enter the doctoral program at Louisiana State University, and Dr. Quentin A. L. Jenkins, who helped keep me there, have been both my teachers and my friends. Dr. Robert A. Perkins, through thoughtful comments, helped to point me in right directions.

I have a special debt and deep gratitude to Miss Rose Marie Daigle, my good friend and colleague, who not only assisted in the interview process, but listened, criticized,

encouraged, and in a thousand ways helped me to see this project to completion.

Dr. Benjamin Ogbru of Grambling State University, gave me a new perspective on several occasions, and I wish to acknowledge his interest and help. Mrs. Bernice Attaquio-fio, Grambling State University librarian, was especially helpful in the library research, as was Mrs. Hazel Jones, Head Librarian. Dr. William McIntosh, Dean of Liberal Arts, Grambling State University, gave me the time necessary to devote to this project.

It is really not possible to adequately thank my family. Mickey, Bob and Carol, David and Mary, Jimmy and Sandi, and June have each helped and supported me, making me believe that the work could not only be done, but was worth the doing. My husband, Carlos, gave me the time, love, and emotional support to finish the work, as he has done in all my endeavors for thirty years; then he added a magic ingredient that made the whole thing possible. To each of them, my love and gratitude.

I wish to thank Mrs. Nell Hutchins, Ruston, Louisiana, for typing the manuscript. Her skill and professional competence relieved me of concern in meeting the final deadline.

Finally, this work is dedicated to the two disparate groups who have influenced my interests and work: the patrolmen of Whitewater, Greentrees, and Redrock Parishes, and my students of Grambling State University.

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ABSTRACT

The study was designed to be an empirical, cross-sectional analysis of factors influencing occupational stress and job satisfaction among police officers in one urban and two rural parishes in Louisiana. Variables significantly related to stress were found to be police perception of their supervisors, the public they serve, education, age, and satisfaction with equipment. Sheriff deputies were found to experience higher amounts of stress than city police officers in the research area and rural officers were significantly less satisfied with their pay than were urban officers.

No significant differences were found in amounts of job satisfaction between urban and rural police officers, but lower amounts of job satisfaction were found among those who perceived their supervisors and the public negatively. The number of factors taken into account by police officers in decision-making and exercising their discretionary power had no significant influence on amounts of occupational stress and job satisfaction.

The number and frequency of roles undertaken was greater in urban areas, but had no significant influence on amounts of occupational stress and job satisfaction experienced by officers in the research area.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview of the Police in Society

The police occupy a unique position in society. The organizational units which they represent are charged with the necessary, but sometimes conflicting, functions of enforcing the law, maintaining public and private order, preventing crime, apprehending criminals, protecting both lives and property, and insuring the safety of the general citizenry. To carry out these functions, the police as a group and as individuals are given lawful authority to use coercive methods to whatever degree necessary to fulfill these functions. The major overt constraint upon this authority is that the police themselves must carry out the functions within the law. Although there are other more subtle, but nonetheless significant restrictions such as peer group pressure, public pressure, administrative limitations, manpower and financial allocations, and others, it cannot be stressed too heavily that the power to legally use physical force to obtain compliance resides solely with the police as the designated arbiters of legal social control.

within the community.¹ Society, thus has granted to the police special powers, special rights, and special authority.

Because police power and discretion is so great, it is difficult to overestimate the impact of not only the police organization but also the impact of the individual officer upon society. August Vollmer pointed out nearly forty years ago that for the ordinary citizen, the policeman was not only a representative of government, he was government, he was the law.² The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Criminal Justice in 1967 reported that law enforcement policy is made by policemen and that they are both interpreters of law and arbiters of those social values expressed in law.³ Moreover, not only do individual police possess great power, and are perceived by other citizens as possessing that power, the organizations they represent also possess almost unlimited local autonomy over

¹ Leonard Savitz, Dilemmas in Criminology. (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1967), p. 67. Savitz points out that the police have a "monopoly" on the legitimate use of force within their political jurisdictions. The existence of separate and distinct political jurisdictions should not obscure the fact that cooperation between political jurisdictions may enhance the monopoly rather than diminish it.

² August Vollmer, The Police and Modern Society. (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1936), p. 216.

³ A Report by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, "The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society." (Wash., D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February, 1967), p. 10; hereinafter cited as the 1967 President's Report.

the exercise of those powers.⁴ Locally autonomous police agencies, then, as organizational units, seek to maintain social order and control by the exercise of enormous legal powers through the performance of social roles enacted by individual officers. While it is true that these roles are circumscribed by law, departmental regulations, administrative policy and community norms, it is also true that the individual officers must, of necessity, enact their roles both spontaneously and independently with a rather broad range of options. The nature of his work demands instant, personal decisions and judgments that seriously affect his office, his organization, individual citizens, and ultimately has a direct impact upon community attitudes toward the entire system of criminal justice.

The uniqueness of the police's place in society can be overstated, however, with effects detrimental to the effectiveness of their functions. The unique position and power of the police should not obscure their interdependence with other institutions in society, nor set them apart as a secretive, untouchable, and unknowable unit. While it is true that police have the power to exercise control over

⁴Herbert A. Block and Gilbert Geis, Man, Crime and Society. (New York: Random House, 1962), p. 451; also see James C. Parson's "A Candid Analysis of Police Corruption" in Jerome H. Skolnick and Thomas C. Gray, Police in America. (Boston: Educational Associates, 1975), p. 258.

others,⁵ it is also true that coercive power is exercised daily in many prosaic settings such as governmental and industrial bureaucracies, private businesses, or in the house next door. The police are but a first step in the entire criminal justice system, and their decisions can be, and are, daily overruled by their immediate supervisors, district attorneys, and various levels of the court system. The essential point here is that if the police conceive of themselves, and evidence suggests that the majority do, as holding a position distinctly different from others in their communities, they may believe that their uniqueness renders them incapable of being understood by their communities or indeed by anyone other than another policeman.⁶ Such a perception, it seems to me, leads the police into unnecessary social isolation, and tends to lead to behavioral strategies and attitudes that enhance social distance not only between themselves and law-breakers, but between themselves and the community whose cooperation and understanding is essential

⁵Power is used here in the sense of the capacity to control others, as noted by Lewis Coser in "The Notion of Power: Theoretical Developments," in Sociological Theory: A Book of Readings. 4th Ed., (New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1975), pp. 153-154.

⁶One observer flatly states: "The only persons who can fully appreciate the policeman's situation are his colleagues." Jonathan Rubinstein, City Police. (New York: Ballantine Books, 1973), p. 438. Logically, any occupation from publishing to peanut-vending has unique features whose intricacies can only be experienced by practitioners of the art; however, I would hold that one does not have to experience the intricacies in order to understand the essential features and problems connected to the job. As Weber noted one does not have to be Caesar to understand Caesar.

to their success.

There are, of course, special conditions to all types of employment, and while police are undoubtedly exposed to extraordinary dangers, other occupations such as pilots, members of the armed forces, high steel workers, divers, oil-field workers, handlers of explosives, movie stunt men, and rodeo riders are also high-risk occupations. Moreover, latitude in decision-making is present in many occupations, and reliance upon personal judgment is axiomatic in such professions as the law, teaching, medicine, and the ministry. Each profession and work setting is different, and it is evident that each develops norms to both cope with and control the pressures attendant to the exercise of authority. Most of the above professions mentioned, however, usually have long periods of training that presumably better equip them to effectively handle decision-making and make personal judgments within recognized ethical standards.

Statement of the Problem: Review of the Literature

For many years sociologists have neglected the police institution as a topic for scientific research. Arthur Niederhoffer in his Behind the Shield notes that from 1940 to 1965 only six articles pertaining to police were published in the American Journal of Sociology and the American Sociological Review.⁷ However, the civil rights movement,

⁷ Arthur Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield: The Police in Urban Society. (Garden City, New York: Anchor Books, Doubleday and CO., 1969), p. 4; also see Peter Manning, "The

increased vocal opposition to the Vietnamese war, increased student activism, street violence, and soaring crime rates all have served to focus attention on police as their responses to these events were widely seen and reported. As criticism to police responses mounted, government commissions, agencies, as well as private scholars, became more interested in the police as a vital, integral part of the social structures. The tremendous increase in publications in the entire field of criminal justice has been accompanied by greater numbers of universities offering majors in law enforcement, corrections, or administration of criminal justice.⁸ As a result of increased interest, work has proliferated in the area and now not just law enforcement, but the entire field of criminal justice has come under increasing scrutiny. More importantly, the efforts of scholars have concentrated not just on criticism and explanation of the system, but the interactive effects of the various components of the system on each other. For example, police become discouraged when their cases are plea-bargained away, or when the courts impose a minimum sentence upon repeater offenders. District attorneys and courts are equally

Researcher: An Alien in the Police World," in Arthur Niederhoffer and Abraham S. Blumberg, The Ambivalent Force: Perspectives on the Police. (Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press, 1976), pp. 104-109 for a selected listing of research and methods of research on the police.

⁸A. C. Germann, "Law Enforcement: A Look into the Future," in Niederhoffer and Blumberg, The Ambivalent Force, p. 353. Mr. Germann points out that there are presently eight hundred college-degree programs in criminal justice.

discouraged when police overlook or do not know laws of evidence, resulting in inability to prosecute or the dismissal of the cases. It is helpful, then, that previously neglected areas, such as discretion in sentencing,⁹ plea-bargaining,¹⁰ the social relationships of both inmates and officials within the prison system,¹¹ the effect of the criminalization of alcoholics and drug abusers upon the system,¹² police law-breaking,¹³ enforcement philosophy,¹⁴

⁹Willard Gaylin, Partial Justice: A Study of Bias in Sentencing. (New York: Vintage Books, 1974).

¹⁰Arthur Rosett and Donald R. Cressey. Justice by Consent: Plea Bargains in the American Courthouse. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1976).

¹¹Donald R. Cressey, The Prison: Studies in Institutional Organization and Change. (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1961).

¹²Francis A. Allen, The Borderland of Criminal Justice: Essays in Law and Criminology. (Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press, 1964); also see Raymond T. Nimmer, Two Million Unnecessary Arrests. (Chicago: American Bar Foundation, 1971).

¹³Arnold S. Trebach, The Rationing of Justice. (New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1964); also see Rodney Stark, Police Riots, (Belmont, Ca.: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1972) and Paul Chevigny, Police Power: Police Abuses in New York City. (New York: Vintage Books, 1969), as well as the popular and excellent Serpico: The Cop Who Defied the System by Peter Maas. (New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1973).

¹⁴George F. Cole, Criminal Justice: Law and Politics. (Belmont, Ca.: Duxbury Press, 1972); also see Egon Bittner, The Functions of Police in Modern Society. (Chevy Chase, Maryland: National Institute of Mental Health; Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, Public Health Service Publication Number 2059, 1970).

police-community relations,¹⁵ decision-making and discretionary power of the police,¹⁶ have all begun to be examined in-depth, and many have begun to develop into distinct sub-categories of study. This may indicate a beginning of maturity for criminal justice as a serious and separate academic discipline rather than an adjunct to political science, sociology, or social welfare programs. Unfortunately, in spite of this tremendous increase in police studies, and perhaps as a matter of convenience, work has been concentrated on police in major, metropolitan areas to the neglect of smaller urban and rural areas which are no less affected by police behavior.

Police are generally drawn from local labor pools and it is assumed that they are generally representative of citizens in their communities in their norms, values, attitudes, and behaviors upon entering police service. This assumption is based partly upon a review of the literature which indicates that no specific personality type is drawn to a law enforcement career. In an excellent article designed to review the research conducted on police behavior

¹⁵ Alvin W. Cohn and Emilio C. Viano, Police-Community Relations: Images, Roles, Realities. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1976).

¹⁶ Almost all new criminal justice texts contain a section on this topic, at least to point out the problem area. Two of the most complete works on the subject, in my opinion, are Wayne R. LaFave, Arrest: The Decision to Take a Suspect into Custody. (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1965) and Kenneth Culp Davis, Police Discretion. (St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Co., 1975).

from a psychological, sociological or socio-cultural approach, John F. Galliher points out the uncertainty of the findings on this topic. He notes that while John H. McNamara in 1967 found:

an increase in authoritarianism and after recruit police training and a further increase after one year on the job . . . the significance of McNamara's research is somewhat blunted by Bayley and Mendelsohn's finding that police are in fact, less authoritarian than other citizens.¹⁷

Rubin, in his "Police Identity and the Police Role" states that the widely accepted stereotype of policemen as frustrated dictators is a view simply not supported by available studies.¹⁸ Moreover, Niederhoffer found no evidence that highly authoritarian persons seek out a police occupation and that the relationship between personality and occupational choice remains an "open question," although they may be transformed into authoritarian personalities in time as a consequence of performing their jobs.¹⁹

A problem generally not addressed in the literature is that of factors related to the behavior of police in rural areas as compared to urban areas. In 1933, Bruce Smith wrote that police in rural areas possessed characteristics "clearly distinguishable" from their urban counterparts, and

¹⁷ John F. Galliher, "Explanations of Police Behavior: A Critical Review and Analysis," in Niederhoffer and Blumberg's The Ambivalent Force, p. 65.

¹⁸ Quoted in Robert F. Steadman, Ed., The Police and the Community. (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1972), p. 18.

¹⁹ Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield, pp. 131-142.

went on to state that "sheer inertia" caused them to rely upon tradition and to resist change of any kind.²⁰ In 1962 Herbert A. Bloch and Gilbert Geis devoted a mere one and a half pages to the issue of rural police. They noted that in spite of the fact that rural law enforcement agencies constitute the bulk of the more than 40,000 separate police agencies in the country, most rural police forces "putter along in charge of shopworn forces of underpaid, inadequately trained, and unskilled officers."²¹ One general purpose of this research was to see if such pejorative comments were presently reflective of rural law enforcement agencies.

On the other hand, the 1967 President's Commission noted that in most rural, small town and suburban communities the public "sympathizes and cooperates" with the police,²² and the people are "likely to be conspicuous, under surveillance by his community so to speak, and therefore under its control."²³ Blau and Meyer also indicate that small town police behavior is influenced by the

²⁰ Bruce Smith, Rural Crime Control. (New York: The Institute of Public Administration, printed by The Southworth Press, Portland, Maine, 1933), pp. 5-34.

²¹ Bloch and Geis, Man, Crime, and Society, p. 456.

²² The President's Report, p. 99. Also see Michael Banton, The Policeman in the Community. (London: Tavistock Publications, 1964), wherein Banton holds that the police obtain public cooperation and enjoy public esteem because "he enforces standards accepted by the community," p. 3.

²³ Ibid., p. 6.

cultural milieu in which they operate.²⁴ It is assumed that more informality exists in rural social systems than in urban social systems, but it has yet to be empirically demonstrated that this informality is a significant factor in law enforcement behavior, policy, and practices. Kansas City Police Chief Joseph McNamara recently stated that the whole question of the operations of sheriff's offices nation-wide needed both study and evaluation. He contended that there is a "time-bomb ticking in this country" since the legal qualifications for office are so minimal and their power so "awesome."²⁵ Additionally, there is movement in some eastern states to consolidate the sheriff and police departments to reduce the cost of increasingly expensive responsibilities of law enforcement within common jurisdictions. A recent report by the Agriculture Department states that the costs of law enforcement are increasing in rural areas due to a rise in rural crime and the approaching retirement of rural sheriffs who will be replaced by men

²⁴Peter M. Blau and Marshall W. Meyer, Bureaucracy in Modern Society, 2nd Ed. (New York: Random House, 1971), pp. 44-46; also see James Q. Wilson, Varieties of Police Behavior. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1968), which indicates that suburban police react differently to juvenile incidents because "they have little else to do or perhaps because the community wants it so," p. 116.

²⁵Chief McNamara, holding the Ph.D. from Harvard University is an acknowledged expert in his field. The successor to Clarence Kelly, McNamara has instituted field experiments to determine the value of police patrols in reducing crime. The cited statements were made on October 8, 1975, at the American Academy of Professional Law Enforcement Symposium, in Kansas City, Missouri.

unwilling to work long hours for low pay.²⁶

Objectives of Study

This study attempts to address the issue of whether differences in behavior do in fact exist between rural and urban law enforcement officers. A major purpose of this study was to examine those factors within agencies that shape behavior in the police roles and those factors which influence occupational stress and job satisfaction. The concentration was not upon the content of the tasks performed, but upon the role players and their perceptions and orientations to their tasks.²⁷

Specific questions dealt with include the amount of job satisfaction and occupational stress present, and whether there are differences in those variables between rural and urban police. What factors influence job satisfaction and occupational stress? What effect does the organizational structure, and the quality of supervision as

²⁶ Agriculture Department Spokesman quoted in the Ruston Daily Leader, Ruston, Louisiana, May 21, 1976.

²⁷ Task Force Report: The Police. The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. (Wash., D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 16-18, which states that there have been only "occasional efforts" to guide and control police with deliberate, planned policies and procedures to help them to respond to a wide variety of tasks. See also Coser, Sociological Theory: A Book of Readings, pp. 232-270 for a summary of concepts on the influence of role-taking and choice of reference groups. The concentration upon orientation to task rather than tasks themselves is not to dismiss the importance of enumerating and analyzing tasks. One of the best studies dealing with this area is the previously cited City Police by Rubinstein.

perceived by patrolmen have on job satisfaction and occupational stress? Do decision-making, civilian attitudes, numbers of roles played, pay or promotion procedures influence work satisfaction and stress and do these differ in urban settings as compared to rural settings? What differences, if any, exist in the training and education of policemen in rural and urban areas? The study is thus exploratory and descriptive in nature, and examines selected social, psychological, and organizational factors which influence the behavior of patrolmen in selected rural and urban parishes in Louisiana.

Need for the Study

It is obvious, as noted by Cruse and Rubin, that the quality of a police officer is not unidimensional.²⁸ The danger of the work, the authority exercised, the organizational demands, as well as training, education, and personal and marital stresses, all play a part in how an officer exercises the duties of office. It has been suggested for some time that by demanding an increased level of higher education as a prerequisite for police recruitment and selection, a more efficient police department would result.²⁹

²⁸David Cruse and Jesse Rubin, "Determinants of Police Behavior: A Summary," Criminal Justice Monograph. (Wash., D.D.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1973), p. 9.

²⁹The President's Report, 1967, p. ix states: "As an ultimate goal, the Commission recommends that all police personnel with general enforcement powers have baccalaureate degrees." Also see James Q. Wilson in Steadman, The Police and the Community, p. 73.

This concept was the major topic of discussion at a symposium sponsored jointly by the American Academy for Professional Law Enforcement and the John Jay College of Criminal Justice that was held in Kansas City in October of 1975.

There is a need, then, to determine from working policemen the areas of their work which contribute to job satisfaction. Once we have a better understanding of police behavior, types and kinds of education and training can be more systematically designed. A major criticism often leveled at universities offering criminal justice majors is that the academic curriculum is often just a longer course in material already covered in the police academy.³⁰ A better understanding of policemen and their work would also help in the planning of work, selection of personnel, alternative administrative policies being examined, and perhaps would facilitate greater community understanding and cooperation. Additionally, since so little is known of what differences if any, exist in the performance of police in

³⁰ Many police, both in-state and out-of-state, have joked with each other in my presence about taking courses in "Handcuffs I and II" and receiving three academic hours credit for it. Unfortunately, they made it clear that they were speaking of both undergraduate and graduate courses. Working policemen going to college also heavily criticize instructors that spend most of their time telling "war stories" rather than dealing with substantive material. This criticism is not limited to criminal justice education, of course. These comments are not meant as a blanket indictment of all criminal justice education, rather to simply point out the problem. For a complete discussion of the issues and problems in criminal justice programs in higher education see William J. Mathias, "Higher Education and the Police," in Niederhoffer and Blumberg's The Ambivalent Force, pp. 377-385.

rural sectors and urban sectors, the study attempts to partially fill in some gaps in our knowledge in this regard.³¹ Steadman points out that society has been prone to accept a police work mythology and the result has been to isolate both the police and the public from reality. Because of this isolation, the public urges training but refuses to clearly define the roles for which policemen must be trained.³²

Theoretical Background

A basic assumption of this study is that behavior is learned and is adaptive to the cultural milieu in which it occurs.³³ It has been pointed out by several observers of police behavior that one adaptive response exhibited by police is the rise of a sub-culture within police organizations,³⁴ and that actual police behavior stems from

³¹Banton, The Policeman in the Community, p. 94. It is clear that police agencies must adapt to varying community conditions and problems such as finances, population, types of prevalent crime, crime rates, political and social concerns. Banton simply points out that sociological studies may make these conditions specific.

³²Steadman, The Police and the Community, p. xiii.

³³William J. Goode, Explorations in Social Theory. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1973), p. 150; also see Leslie A. White's "Man and Culture," in Theories and Paradigms in Contemporary Sociology, edited by R. Serge Denisoff, Orel Callahan and Mark H. Levine. (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock, Publishers, Inc., 1974), pp. 220-233.

³⁴Banton, The Policeman in the Community, p. 13. Banton cites the feeling of solidarity among officers that imposes a feeling of obligation toward each other and states that this "has to be one of the principal values in the

occupational concerns of the police rather than an "overt concern" for carrying out the law.³⁵ Niederhoffer and Blumberg note:

Police, who have already been socialized and shaped in one society, are required to adapt to a new world when they enter the police culture. . . . The special structural qualities of the police culture include: the uniform, ceremonials, etiquette, power and authority, a unique set of duties, strong kinship and solidarity among policemen, a sense of isolation from the rest of the community and other occupations, and a perception of common hazards and dangers that are shared by all police officers. This combination endows the police organization with an irresistible psychological power, so that most officers internalize the traditional values of the police culture.³⁶

Closely connected with the development of a sub-culture as one response to a feeling of police alienation, is the possibility of police viewing themselves as marginal men. Nicholas Alex found that the police feel that the community often views them with ambivalence and suspicion rather than appreciating fully the often dangerous and

culture of the patrolman." Also see David H. Gilston and Lawrence Podell, The Practical Patrolman, (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1959); and James Q. Wilson, "Police Morale, Reform and Citizen Respect: The Chicago Case," in The Police: Six Sociological Essays edited by David J. Bordua, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967), p. 138. Among the first to point out this phenomena was William A. Westley, "Violence and the Police," American Journal of Sociology, 69, (August, 1953), pp. 34-41 and "Secrecy and the Police," Social Forces, 34, (March, 1956), pp. 254-257.

³⁵ Clayton A. Hartjen, Crime and Criminalization. (New York: Praeger Publishers, 1974), p. 86.

³⁶ Niederhoffer and Blumberg, The Ambivalent Force, p. 137.

thankless tasks required of them by their critics.³⁷ The black policeman, moreover, is caught in the double marginal position because of the conflict between his ethnic and occupational roles.³⁸ Resented by his fellow officers who, despite the resentment must depend upon him, resented by the black community as a "traitor" or an "Uncle Tom," the black policeman may be in a position wherein his occupational stress is maximized. Niederhoffer, while not addressing himself to the problem of the black policeman per se, but rather to metropolitan police in general, indicates that Merton's Theory of Anomie suggests a model for police adjustment to the various role conflicts he experiences. Niederhoffer indicates that within the police system the typical adaptation to anomie is cynicism.³⁹ In this extremely fine work on the police system, Niederhoffer studies the cynicism phenomena present in the New York City police. He found, generally, that variables significant to the generation of police cynicism were length of service, degree of frustration and Jewish background. Related variables included promotion, education and number of awards.⁴⁰ Particularly significant to the present study is Niederhoffer's

³⁷ Nicholas Alex, Black in Blue: A Study of the Negro Policeman. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), pp. 1-12 passim. Also see Cole, Criminal Justice: Law and Politics, pp. 54-55.

³⁸ Ibid., p. 20.

³⁹ Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield, p. 98.

⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 247.

position that police behavior cannot be explained by individual personalities of policemen. Rather, he believes that "the more powerful determinant of behavior and ideology is the police system itself."⁴¹ Thus, acceptable behavior and philosophy is inculcated through occupational socialization and is reinforced by the choice of reference groups. Occupational stress, coupled with police isolation because of both real and imagined public hostility, may serve to produce reference group selection and sub-cultural group identification to an unusual degree.

Policemen are called upon to perform many roles. They are expected to maintain the peace and order of the community, detect and prevent crime, enforce laws,⁴² and act as counselors and friends to both the children and adults in the entire community. A primary reason for community expectations for the police to perform these roles is that there is simply no other agency available twenty-four hours a day with the necessary resources and expertise,⁴³ and accidents, crimes, and crises do not confine themselves to an eight to five day; nor does any other agency have the authority to intervene in a peace-keeping capacity.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 160.

⁴²Police are expected to enforce some, but not necessarily all laws. The clearest explanation of the dilemma facing the patrolman regarding this factor is found in Davis, Police Discretion, pp. 1-97 passim.

⁴³Louis B. Schwartz and Stephen R. Goldstein. Law Enforcement Handbook for Police. (St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Co., 1970), p. 1.

Because of a multiplicity of roles, poorly defined but nonetheless expected, it is assumed that role conflict is an ever-present facet of police behavior. The exercise of discretionary power, the ambivalent nature of his authority, and the ever-changing and unexpected possibilities of the presentation of danger, all serve to induce stress within policemen roles. Farrell and Swigert note that Durkheim, Merton, and Parsons have posited that adaptation to strain must occur⁴⁴ and social psychologists Fritz Heider and Leon Festinger, according to Deutsch and Krauss, indicate a need to reduce such strains.⁴⁵ One possible resolution to stress may be produced by adopting reference group norms; but even within reference groups, varying normative standards of behavior may be acceptable. That is, the normative reference groups may establish over-arching parameters of behavior while varying degrees, types, and kinds of behavior are still acceptable to the group. Neither status, prestige, nor in-group support would be withheld provided the normative behavior parameters were not too flagrantly violated.⁴⁶

⁴⁴Ronald A. Farrell and Victoria Lynn Swigert, Social Deviance. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1975), pp. 131-178.

⁴⁵Morton Deutsch and Robert M. Krauss, Theories in Social Psychology. (New York: Basic Books, Inc., Publishers, 1965), pp. 29-36 for a summary of Heider's views, and pp. 62-76 for a summary of Festinger's views.

⁴⁶This flexibility is what Professor Bertrand calls a "range of tolerance." See Alvin L. Bertrand, Social Organization: A General Systems and Role Theory Perspective. (Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Company, 1972), p. 59.

Thus, social learning is not independent but may be imitative in that the police officer models himself after the significant others of his reference group.⁴⁷

Richard Quinney assumes a conflict-power model of society wherein law is created not by the whole society, but rather by special interest groups who "have the power to translate their interests into public policy."⁴⁸ This theory becomes important to this study insofar as whatever special interest group pressure is exerted through the individual organizational unit is assumed to be mediated through the supervisory echelon of the unit. These pressures may be selected out, or modified, and passed on to the individual officer as formal departmental policy or unwritten, informal, departmental philosophy or policy. While Quinney holds that implementation of law is necessarily "influenced by such matters as localized conditions and the occupational organization of legal agents, the interest structure of politically organized society is responsible for the general

⁴⁷L. Craig Parker, Jr., and Robert D. Meier, Interpersonal Psychology for Law Enforcement and Corrections. (St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Co., 1975), pp. 101-109 for a more complete view of modeling theory and technique.

⁴⁸Richard Quinney, "A Sociological Theory of Criminal Law," in The Collective Definition of Deviance, edited by F. James Davis and Richard Stivers, (New York: The Free Press, 1975), p. 45. John F. Galliher in his previously cited article agrees with Quinney, stating: "Much of police behavior seems most easily explained if one considers that whenever there is a conflict of interests between the dominant classes in a society and less powerful groups, the police protect the interests of the former and regulate the behavior of the latter," p. 68.

design of the administration of justice,"⁴⁹ I would suggest that the special interests as perceived by the supervisory officials may become reflexive so that the special interest groups and the organizational units interest may coincide, but be felt as pressure by the individual officer only as departmental pressure. In short, the operative and important special interest group to the individual police officer is the organizational unit to which he belongs.

Summary

Police not only enforce the law, but by selective enforcement and spontaneous decision-making also, in effect, make the law. The unique position the police occupy and the exercise of the special powers accorded to them by society, may serve to isolate them from the community and its citizens. In spite of its unique features, policing is an occupation with roles enacted by men subject to occupational pressures which may influence their role performance. In order to have a better understanding of those influences, this study attempts to explore factors which influence the occupational stress and job satisfaction of police officers in selected rural and urban areas.

⁴⁹ Ibid., p. 49.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE AND DISCUSSION OF HYPOTHESES

Although role theory, reference group theory, role conflict, organizational structure and stress leading to the development of sub-cultural norms are all significant to the research problem, it is important to understand that these provide only a partial explanation for police behavior. A broader analytical tool is necessary to place the problem into a theoretical framework that more closely approximates the reality of the interactions, within and without individual organizational units, that may both enhance and impede organizational performance and goals. However imperfect, a systems model seems to offer the best approach for analysis in varying communities as it permits the localized emphasis of pertinent institutions and interactional influences. This model accepts an open system as striving toward a balance between the subsystems, or homeostatis, and does not deny the presence of conflict; indeed, conflict and shifting values and interests create the conditions that bring about change and the need for new balance. The view taken here of the systems model accepts Dahrendorf's analysis that "society has two faces of equal reality: one of stability, harmony, and consensus and one of change,

conflict and constraint"¹ as a reality-based concept, capable of taking both consensus and conflict into account.

William Dienststein, in a paper presented at the Second National Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology in 1968 stated:

The point is that law enforcement does not operate in a vacuum. It is an integral part of a complex web of behaviors. That web is as broad as the American society and all that it implies.²

Law enforcement agencies are a necessity of society which enables the enforcement of the kind of social order that we have brought into being by the agreement of some, by the forcing of the choices made upon others, and by custom and tradition. It is not an isolated entity, but is subject to the laws, regulations, policies, and influences of other community bodies as well as individual citizens and special interest groups. The external system thus influences almost every aspect of law enforcement. The police system, while autonomous as a legal entity as previously noted, is dependent upon the larger society within which it functions.

Law enforcement is regulated by the federal government through the constitution, federal laws, and Department of Justice policies. It is regulated by the state through its

¹Ralf Dahrendorf, "Out of Utopia: Toward a Reorientation of Sociological Analysis," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. LXIV, (September, 1958), p. 127.

²William Dienststein, "Sociology of Law Enforcement," in Crime, Criminology and Contemporary Society, edited by Richard D. Knudten. (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, 1970), p. 208.

constitution, state laws, and other agencies. Financing of sheriff's offices is determined by the state legislature, and incumbency in that office is determined by election. City police financing is determined by city councils and mayors, and city police chiefs are either elected or appointed by city councils. Law enforcement is regulated by the courts through rules of evidence and law, while elected district attorneys make the decision to take further action on cases presented to them by the police. While it is commonplace to view police as regulators, they are in fact subject to community control by law, influence, and custom. Sometimes it appears that the controls are exercised invidiously and even capriciously, but they are nevertheless exercised. Law enforcement's ability to fulfill their legal functions are undercut when there is a lack of public support and under-financing. The police are as dependent upon their communities as the community's peace and order is upon them.

The police, then, as a group are subject to specific controls of the larger society and the individual community. The patrolman, as an individual, within that group, is dependent upon his colleagues and his organizational unit for support, guidance, and interpretation of both his prerogatives and his limitations. As Rubinstein notes the policeman "understands how little power he really has. The person he stops on the street may think him an awesome figure, but the patrolman knows that he is just an armed servant who can

be easily dismissed and replaced."³ Thus, the law enforcement organization and its individual members can be better understood as existing with both temporal and spatial dimensions within an environment that contains other important units of society which are mutually influential in determining performance, problems, and goals.

While there are many versions of a systems model with varying language, concepts, and degrees of complexity, a specific, less abstract model that this study most closely follows, is one first described by George Homans in The Human Group. Homans' interest was the group but he expanded the concept to include a whole community. The system, according to Homans, may be analyzed through four elements:

- a. Activity: what members of the group do as members
- b. Interaction: the relationships of the activities of the group members
- c. Sentiment: the sum of the feelings of group members with respect to the group
- d. Norms: the code of behavior adopted consciously or unconsciously by the group.⁴

³Rubinstein, City Police, p. 455.

⁴Many of the versions from Vilfredo Pareto to Talcott Parsons, including the above interpretation of Homans, is found in Don Martindale, The Nature and Types of Sociological Theory. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960), pp. 464-500. Another version that combines theory with social services practices is Ann Hartman, "To Think About the Unthinkable," Social Casework, (October, 1970), pp. 467-474. A more systematic explanation of specific points of Equilibrium-Integration Theory and Coercion-Conflict Theory,

These separate elements infer the presence of sub-culture, role, and reference group theory within a social system context. The behavior of police, especially relating to job satisfaction and occupational stress, is placed within a systems framework, recognizing the influences of the structure, the processes, the procedures, and interactions both internal and external to the police system. Such a theoretical model of police behavior, then, embraces the following propositions:

1. The police, and the behavior of its individual members, can be better understood if seen as a relevant component of a system that is both affected by and affects an external social system.

2. The police officer occupies a multiplicity of roles in his capacity of a legal agent, and these roles are often ill-defined and conflicting.

3. As an individual, the police officer has psychological needs for coherence, and some measure of certainty that he is fulfilling role expectations, even ambiguous ones, successfully.

4. The police officer's psychological needs for coherence are mediated through sociological units such as his organization, his selected reference groups, his family, peers, and friends.

with accompanying criticisms of each may be found in Calvin J. Larson, Major Themes in Sociological Theory. (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1973), pp. 126-153.

5. The police officer roles give the individual unusual authority that he is aware of, while at the same time approved ways of carrying out those roles are not always specified by his organizational unit. This inconsistency tends to create occupational stress.

6. The training and education that the officer brings to his occupation, coupled with the training and education provided to him, give him confidence in his ability to exercise his role correctly; this confidence may be increased by modeling his behavior after other members of his occupational group.

7. The police officer experiences isolation and hostility from the public he has chosen to serve, and thus selects his reference groups from within his occupational group.

8. The view of the police officers that they are members of a unique group, with a unique position in society, coupled with feelings of isolation, creates an atmosphere of suspicion among police as a group, although not necessarily as individuals.

9. Gaining status, giving status, and validating each others' role performances within the occupational group, create feelings of group solidarity to an unusual degree.

10. Police behavior is bounded by parameters of the reference group's normative standards and these normative standards are to a large degree set by the administration of the individual organizational units.

11. A manifestation of the group's solidarity is the creation of a unique sub-culture that may or may not be, depending on local conditions, contrary to accepted community norms.

12. The purposes of law enforcement, that is, social order and justice, are too remote from daily life to be more than a generalized framework within which the officer operates; supervisory and peer approval are more important to the conduct of the officer.

13. The organizational structure and the supervisory personnel are the main determinants of generalized police behavior and attitudes within each locality and provide the basis for the over-arching normative behavioral patterns of the officers within their jurisdiction.

Operationalization of Variables

Dependent variables

1. Job satisfaction refers to the extent of positive feelings the law enforcement officer has toward his occupation. It is assumed that there are negative aspects to every occupation, but that satisfaction may be indicated by a realistic acceptance of the limitations of the job, and by a feeling of pride and/or contentment with both the occupation and the way in which the person occupying the role is performing the tasks. Job satisfaction is operationally defined by a job description index which lists items relating to work, supervision, co-workers, public, pay and

promotion. Each of these major sub-groups have a word listing and respondents were asked if the word described that particular aspect of his job. Ninety-one items were on the list, and scales were constructed to indicate the two levels of answers. If the word described a particular aspect of the job, respondents answered "yes," if the word did not describe a particular aspect, the respondents answered "no." Score ranges were derived from the answers, and scales were developed for the overall job satisfaction of "High Satisfaction," or "Low Satisfaction." Additionally, job satisfaction scales for each of the above aspects, that is, work, supervision, co-workers, public, pay, and promotion, were also constructed indicating high satisfaction or low satisfaction within each of those categories. The items are found on page two, Section II, of the attached interview schedule.⁵

2. Occupational stress is defined as negative feelings of fear and apprehension which may or may not have physiological manifestations, but which does produce tension and heightened anxiety. Occupational stress is operationally defined by a scale constructed from answers given by the respondents to a set of fifteen statements designed to indicate whether or not they were bothered by certain job

⁵ John P. Robinson, et.al., Measures of Occupational Attitudes and Occupational Characteristics. Institute for Social Research, (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan, 1974), p. 107.

conditions. Five levels of responses were possible: "Never," "Rarely," "Sometimes," "Rather Often," "Nearly all the Time." Scores were derived, and a scale constructed to indicate high stress, medium stress, and low stress. The statements from which the scale was constructed may be found on page three, Section III, of the attached interview schedule.⁶

Independent variables

1. Roles performed; the number of roles requiring differing levels of skills as well as varying skills. Respondents were asked to identify from a list of duties regularly performed by police how often they performed these duties. Possible answers ranged on five levels from "Never" to "Nearly all the Time." Scores were derived from the respondents answers and a scale developed to indicate high, medium, or low frequency of role performance. The list of police duties may be found on pages four and five, Section IV of the attached interview schedule. Additionally, perception of the importance of role performance was determined by asking the respondents to list in rank order the three duties they considered to be the most important. This item is included in the interview schedule on page six, Section VIII A.

2. Civilian attitudes, as perceived by police. This refers to whether police generally believe that the populace

⁶Ibid., p. 208.

they serve view them with understanding, indifference, and/or hostility. Respondents were asked their opinion as to whether the general public understood or appreciated the job of a policeman, and if in their experiences with the general public they were treated with courtesy and respect. These questions are found on page five, Section V, of the interview schedule. Additionally, the job description index contains a section on the police perception of the public which serves as a check on the consistency of answers.

3. Organizational structural features including supervisory leadership, opportunities for training, satisfaction with equipment, pay and promotion policies. These features are indicated by questions designed to elicit either negative or positive feelings of respondents toward these features. These questions are found on page five, Section VI, and page six, Section VIII, B and C.

4. Discretionary power and decision making. This refers to the degree to which individual judgments are made and upon what basis discretionary power is exercised. Since policemen do not make every arrest they lawfully could, respondents were read a list of factors and asked to identify which of the factors affected their decision to make the arrest. An open-ended question was also included to permit those interviewed to identify other important factors. From these answers, scores were derived and a scale was constructed to indicate whether or not a high or low level of discretion was used in making arrests. The items listed may

be found on page six, Section VII, of the interview schedule, located in the Appendix.

5. Urban-rural setting and socio-economic characteristics. Urban or rural setting is determined by the location of the organizational unit to which the police officer is attached. Socio-economic characteristics of respondents were determined by questions regarding pay, education, and family background. These items may be found on page one, Section I, of the interview schedule, located in the Appendix.

6. City police and deputy sheriffs. City police are defined as those officers attached to a municipal organization, whether located in a rural or urban parish. Deputies are defined as those officers attached to any sheriff's office, whether located in a rural or urban parish.

Hypotheses

1. The number of roles required of police officers is positively and significantly associated with the stress of the officer.

Rationale:--There is considerable controversy in the field as to the number and kinds of roles the police officer should perform. As a result, he is usually given broad, general duties, and exercises independent, discretionary powers when called upon to enforce the law. This independence of judgment coupled with a lack of training and education to confidently rely upon his judgment may induce

unnecessary occupational stress and impair efficiency. It is important to specify the number of roles the officer does, in fact, perform in order to more clearly define the roles, describe the tasks, and direct training, education, and supervision toward needed areas.

2. The urban officer will experience more stress than the rural officer.

Rationale:--It is assumed that urban officers perform more roles with greater frequency, are exposed to greater and more frequent danger, than their rural counterparts, thus increasing amounts of stress experienced.

3. Deputies will experience greater occupational stress than municipal police officers, regardless of location.

Rationale:--Deputies are not covered by civil service regulations and serve at the pleasure of sheriffs who must stand for election every four years. While in large departments it would not be expected that there would be a complete turn-over of personnel, or wholesale dismissals upon the election of a new sheriff, no deputy can be secure in the knowledge that it will not happen to him.

4. Greater amounts of stress will be experienced by officers who perceive their supervisors negatively.

Rationale:--It is believed that police officers look to their organizational units for validation of role performance, and particularly to their supervisors as representing the will of the organizational units. It is further

believed that it is the supervisory echelon that ultimately defines the "range of tolerance" of norms, values, and behavioral strategies permitted to the officer in the course of his duties.

5. Greater amounts of stress will be experienced by police officers who believe that the public does not understand their work.

6. Greater amounts of stress will be experienced by officers who believe that the public does not appreciate their work.

Rationale:--Police officers perceive of themselves as public servants, in the best sense of that term. That is, they believe that they perform a public service in protecting and defending the peace and order of the society. One bit of evidence that supports this view are the slogans appearing on police units: "I am a People Helper"; "We Serve Our Community," etc. It is believed that those officers who believe their efforts are neither understood nor appreciated will thus experience greater stress than those who believe that their efforts are understood and appreciated.

7. Patrolmen experiencing greater satisfaction with equipment provided by the department will experience less stress than those who are dissatisfied with their equipment.

Rationale:--Equipment such as weapons, uniforms, communications equipment, and vehicles are an essential part of a patrolman's work performance. He is dependent upon his

weapon for personal safety and job performance, dependent upon his uniform for identification and comfort; dependent upon communications for efficient performance of his job and his safety; dependent upon his vehicle for mobility and territory coverage. He must perceive of these items as reliable and as enabling him to enhance, not impede, his job performance. If he distrusts the equipment, or is dissatisfied with it, this will add to the stress he experiences.

8. The more positively supervisors are perceived by the patrolmen, the greater the job satisfaction.

Rationale:--The police officer exercising a high degree of independent judgment in his job roles will look to his fellow officers and supervisors for validation of those judgments. More particularly, the supervisor is responsible for job assignments, equipment selection, work shifts, types and kinds of training, and law enforcement philosophy which, in effect, specified how the officer may perform his duties and which of the duties will be emphasized.

9. The lower the salary received, the lower the job satisfaction of the patrolman.

Rationale:--While there is an increasing emphasis on the professionalization of law enforcement personnel, there has not always been a commensurate increase in salary levels of policemen, particularly in rural areas. It seems reasonable to expect that salary levels would negatively influence job satisfaction.

10. Municipal police officers will experience greater

job satisfaction than deputies in the various sheriff's offices, rural or urban parishes.

Rationale:--Some studies indicate that individuals are drawn to police work out of a desire for job security. Since municipal officers are protected by civil service regulations, and deputy sheriff personnel are not, the city police officer should have a greater degree of job security, and thus job satisfaction.

11. Greater job satisfaction will be experienced by patrolmen who believe that the public understands their work.

12. Greater job satisfaction will be experienced by patrolmen who believe that the public appreciates their work.

Rationale:--A large part of a policeman's tour of duty is spent in adversary relationships with the public; yet the public is the "consumer" of police services. It may be expected that if the patrolman believes that, generally, the public understands and appreciates his efforts in spite of the hostile nature of their encounters, job satisfaction would be increased.

13. There will be a difference in amounts of job satisfaction experienced between rural and urban officers.

Rationale:--Rural officers are likely to be paid lower salaries, and may not have sophisticated equipment to aid their work; on the other hand, urban officers may be more isolated from the public which they serve. Since little is

known of the differences between urban and rural officers, direction of job satisfaction is not specified, but assumed to exist.

14. Urban officers will perform more roles with greater frequency than will rural officers.

Rationale:--Larger population concentrations in urban areas will provide greater opportunities for more varied duties and greater frequency of performance.

15. The larger the number of factors patrolmen take into account when making a decision to arrest a person, the greater the occupational stress.

16. The larger the number of factors patrolmen take into account when making a decision to arrest a person, the lower the job satisfaction.

Rationale:--If departmental policy has not been clearly enunciated, the burden of decision-making falls most heavily on the patrolman. It is assumed that the ambiguity of decision-making, and the consequences of decision-making that may personally affect the individual officer, will lead to greater occupational stress and lower job satisfaction.

Summary

While the police are autonomous units exercising legal controls over the general citizenry, they are also an integral part of the community, are subject to community controls, and their power is limited by their inclusion in the general community system. The individual police officer,

however, is dependent upon his organizational unit for validation of role performance, and selection of behavioral strategies and attitudes. It is hypothesized that stress and job satisfaction are related to organizational location, numbers of roles played, complexity of decision-making, police perception of the public, police perception of their supervisors, and their income.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The research was designed to be an empirical, cross-sectional, comparative study of three parishes in Louisiana. Two rural parishes and one urban parish were selected as convenient to the researcher and containing elements reflective of law enforcement within rural and urban parishes in the state of Louisiana. In order to insure complete anonymity, officials and individual patrolmen were given assurance that the parishes would not be specifically identified; accordingly, blind names have been assigned to the parishes and any demographic features of the parishes that would serve to identify them have been omitted from their descriptions.

The research design concentrated upon the uniformed patrolman within each parish. Accordingly, many law enforcement personnel were not included in the survey, such as detectives, air patrol members, strike-forces, jailors, canine units, probation officers, federal law enforcement officials, Wildlife and Fisheries personnel, city marshals or ward marshals.

Auxiliary forces were present in all parishes, although they are not utilized in all organizational units

within the parishes. Auxiliary personnel are persons employed on a full-time basis elsewhere and on a part-time basis by the police or sheriff departments. In some organizations, they are paid at regular rates, and are required to work a minimum of ten hours a week in order to retain their places on the regular roster. They are usually utilized on week-ends and other periods of heavy police activity, and usually ride with a regular officer. They may also be used during civic and social events that create major traffic problems. In other organizational units, auxiliary personnel are simply volunteers who enjoy police work and who are called to work infrequently or seasonally, and they are not paid for their time. One police chief who utilized volunteers told me that they were "civic-minded men who want to help the community." One parish officer told me reluctantly that there were "people in the community that we call on from time to time," and I was left with the impression that they were called upon for information, rather than services. In another parish, an officer told me that "certain people" within the parish were irregularly paid for information and "help." Those organizations that regularly used auxiliaries and paid them, stated that they were of enormous help to their departments, and without the auxiliaries, the department would have to budget for and hire more regular employees. While it was beyond the scope of this study, the auxiliary forces are an area of study that needs attention, particularly at a time in Louisiana when there is much more

concern for the quality and kind of training given to police officers.¹

Two city marshals were interviewed since they were the only law enforcement officials present in outlying towns in one parish, but generally city marshals were simply a part of a larger law enforcement unit. Their duties generally entail serving warrants and acting as court officials. In some cases, the Chief of Police was also a ward marshal, and he had been elected to both positions; in this case, being ward marshal simply extended his jurisdiction and the interview was conducted in his capacity as Chief of Police.

Description of Study Areas

One urban parish, Whitewater, was selected for the purpose of comparison to the rural parishes. While Whitewater is a designated Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) with a population of approximately 115,000, and has a central city, Whitewater City, with a population of between 50,000 and 75,000, it is less metropolitan in nature and culture than other SMSA's in Louisiana. It is not considered to be a financial or heavily industrialized center, nor is it as culturally diverse as other metropolitan areas. Whitewater appears to be typical in the problems and

¹There is presently a bill before the state legislature requiring all police officers to have a minimum amount of training and specifying that any presently employed officer with less than eight years of service must attend a law enforcement academy. Many municipal police chiefs oppose the legislation.

resources of growing cities. Since most police studies have concentrated on larger, more cosmopolitan areas, it was hoped that knowledge could be gained of law enforcement in a medium-sized city as well as provide a basis for comparison to more rural area law enforcement. It should be noted that the selected urban parish has a relatively low population, and while designated as an urban parish it is not the most urban parish in Louisiana. While this imposes some limitations on this study for both analytical and comparative purposes it was felt that knowledge of smaller urban areas was of sufficient importance to accept the limitations.

Two rural parishes, Greentrees and Redrock, were chosen for study since little work has concentrated on law enforcement in rural areas. Originally, one parish was selected with the intention of surveying all law enforcement officials within the parish. Based upon statistics in the Louisiana Law Enforcement Comprehensive Plan,² it was expected that approximately sixty-seven officers would be employed within that parish and that approximately fifty would be uniformed patrolmen. After beginning work in the field, however, it was discovered that civilian employees, jailors, radio dispatchers, and city marshals, whose duties could be more accurately described as clerical or bailiff duties,

²Louisiana Law Enforcement Comprehensive Plan: Statistical Analysis of the Louisiana Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice System, Volume II, published by the Louisiana Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Criminal Justice, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, 1975.

made up a larger proportion of employees than was anticipated. Some female employees, while accurately listed in the Comprehensive Plan as sworn officers, actually did secretarial or office managerial work. There were, in fact, only forty-four uniformed policemen employed within the parish. Of these, two, because of illness and duties were unavailable for interview and one refused to be interviewed, leaving a total of forty-one interviews for Greentrees Parish. In order to represent a larger number of rural policemen in the survey, a second rural parish, Redrock, was selected for inclusion in the study.

Greentrees Parish is designated by the United States Census as a rural parish and is characterized by little, if any, public transportation, no heavy industry, is dependent upon light manufacturing, business and service industries in the economic sector, and agriculture or agriculture-related activities as a basis of its economy. The population may be characterized as scattered within the parish and contains one city of approximately 20,000 population. Greentrees also contains several small towns ranging in population from 500 to 2,000 and has a total population within the parish of approximately 34,000.

Redrock Parish is also designated by the United States Census as a rural parish. It has little, if any, public transportation. The major basis of its economy is a large industrial plant, service and businesses, and agriculture and agricultural-related activities. The population of

Redrock Parish is also scattered. The parish contains several small towns, the largest being approximately 5,000 population. The parish has a total population of approximately 16,000.

It should be noted that neither selected rural parish represents the most rural parish within the state but are generally reflective of rural settings.

Data Collection

Data for the study were collected over a seven week period by personal, in-depth interviews³ with police in eleven separate organizational units. Interviews lasted from forty-five minutes to two hours. Almost without exception, all respondents were cooperative, even eager, to talk about their work with someone interested and concerned about their work and their problems. The supervisors went out of their way to facilitate the research. All interviews were conducted by the writer with the help of a colleague who is a university professor with a specialty in criminal justice.

In Whitewater Parish, interviews were first conducted with the Chief Law Enforcement Officer of each organizational unit to be surveyed, the City Police and the Sheriff's Department. The purpose of the initial interview was to outline the research project, explain its purposes, and to obtain the permission and cooperation necessary to

³The one exception to this method is noted below.

conduct personal interviews with the officers employed by each unit. The departments were given my assurance that the parishes would not be identified, nor would any individual officer be identified in any way. Permission was requested to conduct a personal interview with randomly selected officers on each shift. They were told that a final copy of the research would be furnished to each participating organizational unit; they were encouraged to make any comments, either of a negative or of a positive nature, regarding the final report. If any answers are received, these will be made a part of the research paper prior to any public presentation of the results.

The procedures for the interviews, established with the Whitewater City Police, were followed throughout the remainder of the survey, with one exception. After the initial interview with the Whitewater City Police Chief, who gave his full permission for the survey, contacts for the remainder of the survey at Whitewater City Police Department were with the training officer, shift commanders and the patrolmen. The briefing officer informed each shift that I would be in the department conducting research and had the full cooperation of the Chief.

The shift commanders furnished me with a current list of the names of men working on each of the three shifts. The department has approximately two hundred employees of all classifications. There were approximately ninety-three patrolmen regularly assigned to the three shifts. Every

fourth name was selected from the three shifts and a list of twenty-five names was compiled. Each man was interviewed, privately, in the police station, in either the briefing room, or an office assigned to me, depending on the time and activities within the station. Each shift commander then called the man in, by radio, or I would notify the radio dispatcher to call the man in, as I was ready for him. The patrolman would come in during periods of relative inactivity during his shift, and the interview would be conducted. Several factors, of both a positive and negative nature, should be noted regarding this interview procedure. Positive factors include the following:

1. The police station setting indicated to the patrolman that the interviewer had permission from police supervisors to be there. Positive aspects of this setting became clear shortly after interviews began. One night, while waiting for a patrolman to become free to come in for his interview, I was drinking coffee in the day room and was introduced to a young Sergeant. He was courteous, but distant, making no effort to converse with me. Several nights later, at the end of my interview with him, I mentioned his previous coolness to me. His was one of the longer interviews and it was clear that we had quickly established a rapport, making friendly and easy exchanges. He laughed, and said that he had been off-duty when the patrolmen were told in briefing that I had the Chief's permission to be there, and he therefore did not know who I was

when we were introduced in the coffee room. After inquiring about me and seeing me "around the station" for a few days, he said that he knew I was "all right."

2. Patrolmen were completely at ease at their place of work.

3. Because of the familiarity of setting, patrolmen are quite used to being candid in their remarks there, and I believe that the research benefited from the interview setting.

4. Most officers seemed to appreciate the "break in routine," they enjoyed talking about their work, and many expressed an interest in reading the final report.

Negative aspects should also be noted:

1. The most serious is that the possibility of feedback between the officers regarding the nature and type of questions contained in the interview. They undoubtedly talked with each other about the questions and those that did, especially late in the interviewing process, may have had time to formulate answers, although no one was notified in advance that they had been selected.

2. In spite of my assurances of anonymity of responses, each officer obviously knew that his supervisor knew that he was being interviewed. While I am sure in my own mind that the patrolmen were, on the whole, candid with their responses, it is a factor that should be mentioned.

Because of the many frank and unsolicited statements the officers made, I am convinced that the positive aspects

of the physical setting far outweighed any disadvantages. The alternatives to this setting, that is, being interviewed in their homes, off-duty, where privacy would have been difficult to obtain, seem much more fraught with danger of bias. In fact, the only two interviews I conducted in officer's homes were by far the most difficult in terms of establishing rapport with the respondent.

At the Whitewater City Police Department, there are three shifts, and men are permanently assigned to each shift. The first shift runs from 6:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.; the second shift from 3:30 p.m. to 1:30 a.m.; the third shift from 8:30 p.m. to 6:30 a.m. The interviews were conducted on each shift, over a two week period, so that all selected men were interviewed. Additionally, one female officer was arbitrarily selected to be interviewed for a total of 26 for patrolmen. Six supervisors were selected for interviews. All were uniformed, rather than from the detective or special units, for a total of 32 for Whitewater City Police. Data from supervisor's interviews does not include occupational stress or job satisfaction items; the interviews were designed to provide data on pay, promotion, and recruitment criteria, influences felt by the department, and general questions of departmental philosophy and policy.

All interviews at all other organizational units were conducted in the same fashion, with the exception of the Whitewater Sheriff's office. Here the Sheriff and his administrative assistant indicated that while they wished to

cooperate with the research effort, they were short of manpower, had a large territory to cover, and it simply was not feasible for the interviews to be conducted separately. Three shifts are maintained, with the men rotating among the shifts every month. Shift One works from 11:00 p.m. to 7:00 a.m.; Shift Two works from 7:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.; Shift Three works from 3:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m. In order to get maximum participation, in the minimum amount of time, with the least disruption to the department, it was agreed that the interview could be conducted in a group as a pen and paper questionnaire.

Men on each shift were asked by their supervisors to come in fifteen minutes early. This was not considered to be an undue hardship since many patrolmen report to the station early as a matter of routine. My colleague met with each shift in the briefing room, explained the purpose of the interview, and distributed the questionnaire. The interviewer then read each question aloud and any questions from the respondents were answered openly. The questionnaire was administered to the other two shifts in the same manner. Advantages and disadvantages of this method should also be noted. Advantages were:

1. There was little or no possibility of feedback bias between respondents.
2. There was little opportunity for interviewer bias.
3. Each respondent had identical instructions and question interpretation.

4. Policemen are quite familiar with the art of writing clear and accurate reports and could handle the relatively simple interview schedule quite well.

Disadvantages were:

1. Selection of respondents was not systematically random. While it could be argued that since shift rotation prohibits biased selection, and the interview day was selected simply as a matter of convenience to the sheriff's office and the interviewer, the sample nonetheless excluded men who, by chance, were off-duty or ill on the day of the interview.

2. The personal interview offers opportunities for individual insights and impressions simply not present in the written questionnaire. There are less than fifty uniformed deputies assigned to patrol duties in the Whitewater Sheriff's office, and the questionnaire was administered to a total of 30 deputies on all three shifts. Additionally, five supervisors were selected for interview, for a total of 35 at the Whitewater Sheriff's Office.

In Greentrees Parish, all uniformed officers in the parish, on patrol duty, were interviewed with the exception of one officer in the Greentrees City Police Department who refused to be interviewed. In this parish, the two resident state troopers were also interviewed, as well as all chiefs of police and patrolmen in outlying small towns. In two of the smaller towns which had one-man police departments, the interviews were conducted in their homes. In both cases,

other people were present. All other interviews in Greentrees Parish were conducted in the various police stations. Thirty-three patrolmen, eight supervisors, Chiefs of Police, Town Marshals and Chief Deputies were interviewed for a total of 41 for Greentrees Parish.

In Redrock Parish, a total of thirteen officers were interviewed. Of the eight deputies assigned to the Sheriff's office, six were interviewed. One deputy in an outlying district refused to be interviewed, and another was unavailable over a period of two weeks. Seven of the eight city police were interviewed. In Redrock, two of the deputies were interviewed away from the police station: one in a small cafe, the other in the office of a garage where he worked on his off-duty time. The Chief Deputy of the Sheriff's Department and the Chief of Police for the city were interviewed as the supervisory personnel.

In the three parishes, 100 patrolmen were interviewed and twenty-one supervisors were interviewed for a total of 121 respondents. Table 3.1 depicts the numbers and percentages, by parish.

In all field interviews, every effort was made to be as neutral as possible in answering questions of patrolmen relating to interpretation. Both my colleague and I tried to maintain complete objectivity, while at the same time remaining aware of our own biases. I personally had a fairly positive view of the police upon entering the field, and perhaps this positive feeling was apparent to the patrolmen.

TABLE 3.1
RESPONDENTS BY PARISH - URBAN AND RURAL
N=121

Parish	Number	Percentage
Whitewater	67	55.4
Greentrees	41	33.8
Redrock	13	10.7
Urban	67	55.4
Rural	54	44.6

The literature on police repeatedly cautions that police are a suspicious lot, almost paranoid in their secrecy and that they are reluctant to speak openly to outsiders. In recounting research difficulties, Niederhoffer cites the difficulty in "persuading respondents to answer to the best of their ability," and points out that with "police-men such research is twice as difficult." He states that the "first great obstacle is that officers will not talk."⁴

This was not, however, my experience. To the contrary, I was constantly astonished at the willingness of the patrolmen to volunteer information and to share personal, even intimate, thoughts with me. It, in fact, became a pattern that at some point in the interview the patrolmen would comment that policemen were notoriously suspicious of

⁴Niederhoffer, Behind the Shield, p. 203. George L. Kirkham speaks of the "chronic suspiciousness" which a good cop must cultivate in "From Professor to Patrolman: A Fresh Perspective on the Police," in Niederhoffer and Blumberg's, The Ambivalent Force, p. 332; Rubinstein, City Police, p. 439 notes the "need for secrecy and privacy."

everyone, that in order to be a good cop they "had to be suspicious," and that I would find that all the others that I interviewed would "beat around the bush," but that they would tell me the complete truth. In all candor, I believe that, because of my age, sex, and perhaps demeanor, the patrolmen perceived me as being completely non-threatening. It may have simply become a group norm to speak of themselves as being "suspicious of their own grandmothers," and that as a group they uphold and reinforce the norm, but that as individuals they are not as suspicious as they perceive all of the others to be. In any case, I found the patrolmen, on the whole, not only willing to talk to me, but eager to share their feelings about their work. Some thanked me upon completion of the interview, said they were looking forward to reading the final results of the research, and were glad that someone was interested enough "to leave the classroom and find out what the real cop was all about." I left the field interview phase with an even more positive image of the police as a group.

As a final note, I would caution directors of research not only in the care of selection and training of their interviewers, but also to give consideration to limiting the number of interviews they permitted each person to do. No one could have been more interested, even absorbed, in the interview process than I was. I found it to be a stimulating learning process; even so, after hearing myself ask a question for the one hundredth time, I wished only for an

answer, and not much more extraneous material. It may have been partially fatigue from the long and late hours necessary due to the nature of the shift work of the patrolmen, but also partially due to impatience at the sheer repetition of questions and answers.

Measures

Scales were derived from answers obtained for the dependent variables occupational stress and job satisfaction and for the independent variables of roles and discretionary and decision-making, as discussed in Chapter II. A more detailed break-down of the methods used in deriving the scales is given below:

Occupational Stress

The Occupational Stress index of fifteen items could be indicated by the respondents at five levels: Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Rather Often, and Nearly All the Time. Possible score range was 15-75; observation indicated a range of 15-58. The obtained scores were trichotomized into a scale with scores indicating the following levels of stress:

15-27 = Low Stress

28-35 = Medium Stress

36-58 = High Stress

It should be noted that the scale indicates relative stress among the respondents and that the highest possible scores for stress, indicating the highest levels of stress, were

not obtained for any respondent.

Job Satisfaction

The index for job satisfaction contains 91 items in six sub-categories of satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction that seem pertinent to overall job satisfaction. Thus, a score was obtained for each sub-category, and the scores could then be combined for an overall score for job satisfaction as well as giving a score for each sub-category. The possible answers to the words listed were "Yes," "No," and "Undecided." They were scored as correct and incorrect responses with undecided responses scored as incorrect. The observations were trichotomized in the final scale indicating High, Medium, and Low Satisfaction. The possible score ranges, observations, and derived scales are given in Table 3.2. In reporting the data, an analysis of variance is utilized for interval-appearing data.⁵

Summary

In-depth interviews were conducted with 100 patrolmen and 21 supervisors in one urban parish and two rural parishes in Louisiana. Scales were constructed for the two major dependent variables of occupational stress and job satisfaction and independent variables of roles and decision-making. The advantages and disadvantages of the

⁵Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, 2nd Edition. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), pp. 433-441.

interview setting were discussed, with the conclusion that the police station setting did not detract from the candor of responses.

TABLE 3.2
POSSIBLE AND OBSERVED RANGES WITH DERIVED SCALES

Variable	Possible Range	Observation Range	Scale
Job Satisfaction	91-182	97-164	97-115 = High 116-128 = Medium 129-164 = Low
Work Satisfaction	18-36	18-31	18-22 = High 23-25 = Medium 26-31 = Low
Supervisor Satisf.	18-36	18-34	18-19 = High 20-21 = Medium 22-34 = Low
Co-Worker Satisf.	18-36	18-34	18 = High 19-20 = Medium 21-34 = Low
Public Satisf.	18-36	18-34	18-20 = High 21-26 = Medium 27-34 = Low
Pay Satisfaction	10-20	10-20	10-15 = High 16-18 = Medium 19-20 = Low
Promotion Satisf.	9-18	9-18	9-14 = High 15-16 = Medium 17-18 = Low
Decision-Making	17-34	17-27	17-21 = High 22-23 = Medium 24-27 = Low
Roles	27-135	65-111	65-87 = Low 89-95 = Medium 96-111 = High

CHAPTER IV

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

The following table gives summary findings regarding the occupational status and residency status of the respondents:

TABLE 4.1
POLICE SERVICE AND RESIDENCY STATUS
N=121

Variable	Percentage of Police Interviewed
A. <u>Length of Service</u>	
Less than 1 year to 5 years	56.2
6 years to 30 years	43.8
B. <u>Rank</u>	
Patrolmen and Deputies	71.9
Corporal and above	28.1
C. <u>Time in Rank</u>	
Less than 1 year to 5 years	78.3
6 years and more	21.7
D. <u>Birthplace</u>	
Louisiana	78.5
Southern State (other than Louisiana)	14.9
Other States	6.6
E. <u>Length of Residency in Louisiana</u>	
Over 10 years	66.9
5-10 years	14.9
Under 5 years	18.2

Table 4.1 indicates that 71.9% of the men interviewed were rank and file patrolmen with 56.2% having served five years or less with their departments. Reported places of

birth support an earlier assumption that policemen were generally drawn from local labor pools and were generally representative of the communities in which they worked. As can be seen, 78.5% were born in Louisiana and 14.9% in the Southern states, for a total of 93.4% being drawn from a Southern environment, while only 6.6% were born outside the South. Of those interviewed, 81.8% had lived in the area in which they were working for at least five years, and 66.9% had been residents for more than ten years.

The personal characteristics of the police interviewed are summarized in Table 4.2 below.

The median age of 32 years, coupled with the fact that 56% of the respondents had five years or less of police service, seems to indicate that police generally enter police service at a relatively mature age, having had other jobs and experiences. Although police are required to be at least 21 years of age before being eligible for police employment, these statistics seem to indicate that the decision to enter police service is made generally later than that. As a matter of interest, the mean age of the respondents was 34.7 years, and the range of ages was 21 to 68. The three females interviewed were all employed in the urban parish of Whitewater. The oldest respondent was a deputy in an outlying district of Redrock Parish.

Religious Affiliation

The percentage of all respondents indicating that they

were a member of a church was 85.1. Of these, 19.5% reported that they did not attend church at all. Many qualified their answers by saying that their rotating shift work

TABLE 4.2
PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS
N=121

Characteristic	Percentage
A. <u>Median Age</u>	32 years
B. <u>Race</u>	
White	81.8
Black and other non-white	18.2
C. <u>Sex</u>	
Male	96.7
Female	3.3
D. <u>Marital Status</u>	
Married	85.1
Never Married	8.3
Divorced or Separated	6.6
E. <u>Length of Marriage</u>	
1 month to 7 years	39.2
8-20 years	37.4
Over 20 years	23.4
F. <u>Number of Children</u>	
None	23.3
1-2	55.2
3-4	17.2
5-8	4.3
G. <u>Military Service</u>	
Yes	61.2
No	38.8
H. <u>Church Affiliation</u>	
Baptist	57.7
Methodist	20.2
Other Protestant	18.3
Catholic	3.8

prohibited their attendance. While 40.7% reported regular attendance of at least twice a month, 11.5% reported that they attended more than four times a month. Of policemen holding church membership, 18.6% reported that they were

active in such church activities as members of the choir, Sunday School teaching, or holding a church office.

Military Service

Of the 61.2% of respondents who had served in the Armed Forces, 40.5% had served in the Army, 23% had served in the Air Force, 19% in the Navy, and 17.5% had served in either the Marines, Coast Guard, or National Guard. Of those serving in all branches, 75% attained the rank of non-commissioned officer, while approximately 20% were enlisted men at the end of their service, and 5% were officers at the time of their discharge.

Only 8% of the policemen had served over eleven years in the service, indicating that few policemen were career servicemen, or were retired from the armed forces and into their "second careers." The majority, over 70%, had served from one to four years, indicating one tour of duty served and then a return to civilian life.

Marital Status

The majority of police in this study were married. Of the 103 men who were married, 78 had been married from four to thirty years. Sixty-five percent of the wives worked outside the home in a wide range of occupations (Table 4.3).

Of the policemen, 70% have children under the age of eighteen years, while 18% have children over eighteen years of age, with 12% of the police having children falling in both age categories.

TABLE 4.3
OCCUPATION OF POLICEMEN'S WIVES
N=72

Occupation	Percentage
Professional	9.7
Teachers	19.4
Managers	1.4
Self-employed	4.2
Clerical	31.9
Sales	6.9
Craftsmen	1.4
Operatives	5.6
Domestics and Service Workers	19.4

Education

One surprising aspect of the findings of this research was the overall high level of education attained. This appears to indicate an increasing emphasis on education in the professionalization of law enforcement personnel. As can be seen from Table 4.4, 67.8% of all patrolmen had at least some college, while 22.3% were college graduates and 9.1% were working toward a graduate degree, or taking graduate level courses. In Whitewater Parish, the patrolman's salary is automatically increased according to the number of college hours attained. At the City Police Department, a patrolman may receive up to a \$200.00 a month differential for a Master's degree. In the Sheriff's office, a differential of \$50.00 a month is given for the B.A. degree. In rural Greentrees and Redrock Parishes no educational incentive pay is offered; it should not be surprising, therefore, that the majority of college graduates are found in urban

Whitewater Parish. Nevertheless, an attempt is made by all parishes to encourage college attendance, within the limits of their resources. With one to three man forces in some outlying small towns, it is simply not possible to release men to attend colleges, even though in Louisiana colleges are geographically located so that opportunities are relatively available in most parishes. In these small towns,

TABLE 4.4
INCOME AND EDUCATION
N=121

<u>Education</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
7-9 years	5.0
10-11 years	4.1
High School Graduate	23.1
1-3 Years of College	45.5
4-year college graduate	13.2
College graduate plus hours	9.1
<u>Income (Monthly)</u>	
Under \$600	10.7
\$600-\$799	33.9
\$800-\$999	36.4
\$1,000-\$1,199	12.4
\$1,200-\$1,500	6.6

many times it is difficult to release new patrolmen to attend police academies. Several months may elapse between their initial employment, and their attending the six-week police academies offered at Northeast State University in Monroe, or Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge. The Redrock City Police take advantage of any short courses, workshops, or seminars offered whereby Police Academy officials and teachers travel to Redrock and conduct classes

there. Greentrees Parish City Police also make an effort to send their patrolmen for special training in fingerprinting, psychological stress evaluation training, as well as the Police Academy. Whitewater Parish City Police and the Sheriff's office, in addition to incentive pay for education, also will adapt the patrolman's working shift to college class hours to help up-grade their educational levels. Both of these organizations also have well-structured training programs offered both within and outside their organizations. Both utilize briefing sessions for in-house training programs as well. Both seek out programs that are helpful and encourage the officer to participate in them. The rural parishes, however, severely handicapped by manpower and financial limitations, have little or no structured training sessions and their briefing sessions range from notes left on clip-boards in the units for on-coming duty personnel or simply reading a log of the previous shift's activities, to informal exchanges between officers changing shifts.

Income

Income of respondents ranged from \$200.00 a month for an elected Chief of Police¹ in an outlying village of approximately 500 population, to \$1,500 a month for an

¹His election campaign cost \$5.00. The retiring town marshal asked him to run for the office, and he simply paid his filing fee and ran without opposition. He reported that unless the town council increased his income, and established ordinances, he would not run again. He paid all of his expenses to the LSU Law Enforcement Institute, with the exception of \$60.00 which the state paid.

appointed Chief of Police. The median income was \$800.00 a month, and the average income was \$813.00 a month for all respondents.

The Chief of Police earning \$200.00 a month buys his own uniforms, personal equipment, and police car. The town council pays him \$50.00 a month and he receives \$150.00 a month from the state as supplemental pay. The town has no ordinances, and he can issue no tickets. If he arrests someone, he must take them to the parish jail. He supplements his pay by private, self-employment, although he is on call 24 hours a day. When asked how much time he spends on patrol, he said that when he was first elected he tried to go through town every two or three hours, but it became so costly, he had to limit the time he spent on patrol. At present, he goes to the bank at opening and closing time, and patrols from dark until one or two in the morning. He reported that there were many widows and elderly people living within his jurisdiction and they felt "safe" because he was there. The parish sheriff always tries to come when needed, but sometimes is not available, and in any case, it takes from twenty minutes to an hour for the sheriff's office to respond. He further reported that he was receiving more and more complaint calls, and while he arrested only eighteen people last year, the offenses included theft, hit and run driving, simple burglary and acts of juvenile delinquency.

The city councils in all parishes set the pay scale

for the police departments, while the sheriff departments receive a percentage of the taxes collected within the parish. Only one organizational unit, the Whitewater City Police, has a police union.

The Redrock City Police salaries are determined by the city council, and when one city department receives a raise, all of the departments, including the police, also get a raise. There are no merit, longevity, or educational pay incentives. The Chief of Police recognized this inequity and stated that "we're trying to change it."

The Redrock Sheriff's office reported that all deputies start at a set salary and receive percentage increases with length of service. They have difficulty competing with the large industry in the parish, as common laborers are paid more there than are the deputies. Another difficulty is that the small population, and the rural character of the parish means that they have a smaller labor pool from which to draw.

For the Greentrees City Police, pay increases are governed by civil service examinations for promotion and length-of-service. The Chief of Police can grant pay increases up to a certain amount for job performance. Generally, however, as a matter of policy, pay increases are granted on length of service and the ability to pass the examination. In one of the smaller outlying towns, there was no established criteria for pay increases. Salary increases for the three man department was generally a five to fifteen percent cost

of living increase granted by the city council.

In the Greentrees Sheriff's department, step raises are given for cost of living. Not all new employees start at the same salary and the sheriff makes the decision regarding both starting salary and pay increases.

In Whitewater City Police Department, starting pay and seniority increases are governed by civil service regulations. Promotions are based upon eligibility by length of service and the ability to pass the civil service examination.

In the Whitewater Sheriff's office, varying responses were given in answer to the question of what criteria was used for pay and promotions. One supervisor reported that it was "performance, not seniority." Another reported that there were guaranteed pay raises upon completion of basic training and again after the end of a one year probationary period. After these automatic pay increases, raises were given at the Sheriff's discretion, but were generally based upon the supervisor's recommendation. Still another supervisor said that pay and promotion were based upon three factors:

- a. A high school education and evidence of a desire to further his education.
- b. Outstanding performance in some field, doing extra work when off-duty, such as investigating cases.
- c. Length of service.

Moonlighting

Of all respondents, 70% stated that their job as a policeman was their major source of income, and that they did not hold down a second job. Of the 30% who did hold "moonlighting" jobs, one-third held off-duty jobs similar to police work, such as guards at warehouses, security officers for department stores and other businesses. Table 4.5 indicates the variety of off-duty jobs the patrolmen were engaged in:

TABLE 4.5
OFF-DUTY EMPLOYMENT
N=30

Type Job	Number of Patrolmen Employed
Security	10
Sales	4
Craftsmen	4
Operatives	4
Self-employed	3
Teacher	2
Clerical	2
Service Worker	1

These figures may not indicate the full extent of part-time employment. These patrolmen reported regular part-time employment. Many opportunities are available through the department, or through individuals within the department, for occasional security work. The men within the departments appear to be aware of who is moonlighting, and what type of job is held on a part-time basis. One patrolman reported that he had been criticized for working

in a restaurant as a kind of host. At first, the criticism took the form of good-natured teasing. Then he was asked if he actually "served" food or drinks to customers, and when he said that he did, the disapproval became more pronounced. Shortly after I interviewed this patrolman, a hand-drawn cartoon appeared on the bulletin board in the briefing room. It was very well done, and its message was unmistakable. The cartoon depicted a uniformed patrolman, standing in front of a police car. The uniform was baggy, patched, and worn. The caption mentioned the name of the restaurant. The patrolman said that he knew his supervisors and co-workers thought he was compromising the dignity of his profession, but that he enjoyed being around people, thought that all work was honorable, and would not be pressured into giving up the job.

Voter Participation

All respondents were registered voters, as this is a pre-condition for employment. Participation in local, state, and federal elections was extremely high, with 95% reporting that they had voted in the last local and state election. Almost all, 98%, of the respondents reported that they had voted in the last presidential election. While the high figure for local and state elections could readily be understood in the light of police being dependent upon locally elected officials for personal and departmental financial support, the extraordinarily high percent voting

in the presidential election indicates an interest in the electoral process beyond simple self-interest. Sheriff's deputies in two parishes complained of being called upon to engage in political activities, especially during elections; city patrolmen in two parishes expressed relief at not having to engage in politics.

Organizational Memberships

Table 4.6 indicates membership in civic, social, or professional organizations by all respondents. Thirty-three percent indicated that they belonged to no organizations.

TABLE 4.6
ORGANIZATIONAL MEMBERSHIPS
N=81

<u>Number of Organizations</u>	<u>Patrolman Membership</u>
1	30.6%
2-6	36.4%
<u>Type of Organization</u>	
Professional	32.0%
Social	13.0%
Civic	5.0%
Combination of all	17.0%

Many explained that their erratic working hours prevented their attending meetings even if they had an interest in doing so. One supervisor reported that he had dropped all memberships because they conflicted "politically" with his job.

As can be seen from the above table, the majority of police in this survey, 65%, either belong to no organization

at all or only to professional organizations.

Prior Employment

Table 4.7 shows the variety of employment patrolmen engaged in prior to entering police service. Approximately 40% were employed as blue collar workers. If craftsmen are also added as belonging to blue collar status, in a practical sense, approximately 57% belonged to that occupational status prior to entering police service.²

TABLE 4.7

EMPLOYMENT BEFORE ENTERING POLICE SERVICE
N=121

Type of Employment	Percentage
Operative	19
Service worker	19
Craftsman	17
Armed Forces	15
Clerical	7
Sales	7
Student	7
Self-employed	4
Laborer	3
Manager	2

Table 4.8 indicates the occupation of the policeman's fathers. Approximately 48% may be classified as blue-collar workers. If craftsmen are added to the blue-collar category,

²Walter B. Miller, "Ideology and Criminal Justice Policy: Some Current Issues," in Niederhoffer and Blumberg, The Ambivalent Force, p. 304 notes that the "bulk of police officers have working-class backgrounds . . ." and Block and Geis, Man, Crime, and Society state that policemen are "probably" drawn from upper-lower and lower-middle classes, and "probably represent socially mobile persons," p. 458.

then approximately 76% of fathers fall into the blue-collar occupational status, as compared to 57% of sons in this category prior to entering police service. This represents almost 20% fewer sons than fathers in the blue-collar category, indicating a tendency toward upward mobility of the sons prior to police employment.

TABLE 4.8
OCCUPATION OF FATHERS OF POLICEMEN
N=115

Type Occupation	Percentage
Craftsmen	28
Operatives	20
Farmer	17
Service Worker	8
Professional	6
Managers, self-employed	5
Clerical	5
Managers	4
Sales	4
Laborer	3

The majority of the mothers of policemen, 79%, were reported as housewives, not working outside the home. Approximately 9% were blue-collar workers. Table 4.9 lists the types of reported occupations.

The findings indicate that the average policeman in the research area is white, belongs to a Baptist church, is 32 years of age, has been a policeman five years or less, was born and reared in Louisiana, is married with one child, has had some military service, has a median income of \$800 a month, whose wife works, whose father was a blue-collar

worker and whose mother was a housewife.

TABLE 4.9
OCCUPATION OF MOTHERS OF POLICEMEN
N=119

Type Occupation	Percentage
Housewife	70
Clerical	11
Teachers	5
Operatives	5
Service workers	4
Managers, self-employed	2
Sales	2
Managers	1

Supervisors

In addition to the one hundred patrolmen interviewed, twenty-one supervisors in the three parishes were interviewed for background information and to determine their perceptions of qualities they looked for in selection of police recruits, their evaluation of training necessary to officers in their command, to compare duties which were most important to them as opposed to the importance patrolmen attached to their duties, and to discover which governmental agencies exerted the most influence over their organizational units. Other topics included the possible advantages of consolidating the police and sheriff departments, the groups most important to the departments, supervisory expectations regarding patrolman decision-making, and supervisor's perceptions of whether or not the public understood or appreciated the work of the police. Table 4.10 indicates the

qualities that supervisors thought were most important in police recruits.

TABLE 4.10
QUALITIES SOUGHT IN POLICE RECRUITS
N=21

Rank Order	Qualities
1	Emotional control and the ability to deal effectively with people
2	Education and maturity
3	Common sense and highly moral character
4	Desire to be a policeman
5	Family background
6	Reasonable intelligence and good judgment

Other qualities mentioned by the supervisors were that patrolmen should have their "personal life in order," fairness, physical ability, compassion for people, training and experience, personal appearance, general mechanical aptitude, and self-confidence.

Generally, all supervisors recognized the need for a continuing training program to up-grade patrolmen skills, but only the urban parish, Whitewater, had structured, on-going programs. Table 4.11 indicates the type of training, in rank order by frequency of times mentioned, that all supervisors felt as necessary to patrolmen. In addition to those listed in the table, others were training in public

relations, court procedures, specialized training in fingerprinting, drugs and new equipment, roll-call training, fire-arms training, police survival techniques, and physical fitness.

TABLE 4.11
TYPE OF TRAINING MOST NECESSARY TO PATROLMEN
N=21

Rank Order	Type of Training
1	Basic knowledge of law and legal procedures
2	Basic police academy training
3	Basic knowledge of search and seizure laws
4	Basic knowledge of collecting and preserving physical evidence and basic knowledge of human behavior
5	Learning new techniques in investigation
6	Supervised on-the-job training

Whitewater patrolmen, both in the police department and the sheriff's department, participated in a wide variety of types and training sessions during 1975; however, the overwhelming emphasis is on specialized technical training workshops and seminars rather than law or human behavior training. All patrolmen in Whitewater Parish attended a police academy sometime within the first year of their employment and received supervised on-the-job training so that the recognized need for that type of training is met.

It is difficult to say why less training is provided in law and human behavior areas. One reasonable explanation is that law requires more intensive training than could be provided in the time available for training. Family crisis intervention is specified as part of the training given in the police academies, and at least one workshop was provided in 1975 on that subject.

The consolidation of sheriff departments and police departments into one organizational unit is a controversial subject. As a practical matter it is highly unlikely that any law enforcement agency is presently advocating consolidation in Louisiana. Since other states are, however, moving in that direction, supervisors were asked if they believed that sheriff departments and police departments should be consolidated in order to provide more efficient and less costly service to their communities. Table 4.12 indicates that while the majority of supervisors did not think the offices should be consolidated, almost 43% believed that they should be. Since there is, at present, little movement toward consolidation in Louisiana, it is interesting that the supervisors were relatively evenly divided regarding the merits of consolidation.

Of the supervisors interviewed, 81% indicated that individuals and groups did try to exert influence on their organizational units in a variety of ways, while 19% said that no one tried to influence them. Influence was sometimes exerted directly by telephone calls or personal visits

to intercede for someone arrested; however, most supervisors indicated that it was "not a serious problem." In the case of the rural parishes, the supervisors indicated that most people knew them and "they knew it wouldn't do any good to try." City police supervisors said informally that they believed the sheriff's office was more apt to be pressured than they were, although one city police chief said that even while he was making the statement he was remembering "the pressure that the city council puts on me."

TABLE 4.12
CONSOLIDATION OF POLICE AND SHERIFF DEPARTMENTS
N=21

In Favor of Consolidation	Percentage
Yes	42.9
No	57.1

The groups reported to be the most important to the organizational unit's operation as a whole are listed in rank order in Table 4.13.

TABLE 4.13
GROUPS MOST IMPORTANT TO POLICE AND SHERIFF DEPARTMENTS
N=21

Rank Order	Groups
1	Local courts and city councils
2	District Attorney's office
3	State Legislatures

Other groups mentioned were Federal agencies, particularly the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Supreme Court and its decisions, other law enforcement agencies, newspapers, community civic groups, and individual citizens.

Supervisors believe that patrolmen confront unique situations in the course of their routine duties, and should be capable of exercising independence in decision-making. Repeatedly supervisors said that they must have men on the streets that "could handle a situation and decide how to best handle it." Table 4.14 indicates supervisory expectations regarding patrolmen making decisions on patrol.

TABLE 4.14
SUPERVISORY EXPECTATIONS REGARDING DECISION-MAKING
N=21

Expectations	Percentage
Exercise independent judgment	71.4
Exercise independent judgment but get advice as needed	19.1
No response	9.5

Supervisors are available at all times in Whitewater Parish, and in some areas in Greentrees Parish. Generally, however, in the rural parishes, the patrolmen operate completely on their own, particularly on the late evening and early morning shifts. In the rural parishes, the Sheriff or his Chief Deputy, or the Chief of Police may be called for advice or

help twenty-four hours a day.

Apparently, supervisors not only expect patrolmen to exercise independence of judgment, but according to the patrolmen, support those judgments. An exceptionally high percentage of the patrolmen, 94%, believed that their supervisors would back up their decisions in the field. They made it clear, however, that while supervisors would back up field decisions, "we'd better be right."

TABLE 4.15

POLICE PERCEPTION OF SUPERVISORY SUPPORT IN DECISION-MAKING
N=21

Question	Yes	No	Undecided
1. Does your supervisor back up your decisions?	94%	1%	5%
2. Do you get enough supervision?	66%	33%	1%

Both supervisors and patrolmen were asked to give, in rank order, the three most important duties that they performed. Table 4.16 indicates the results.

TABLE 4.16

MOST IMPORTANT DUTIES OF PATROLMEN
N=121

Rank Order	Supervisors	Patrolmen
1	Prevention of crime	Protection of persons
2	Protection of persons	Protection of property
3	Public relations and Community Service	Investigation of crime

This seems to indicate that both patrolmen and their supervisors see their major job as "crime fighters," which is obviously their prime function. Whatever other roles they play as communicators, mediators, problem-solvers, or as community advisors, the role of agents in maintaining social order and control is their legal function, and they perceive it as such. Supervisors, however, placed more importance on public relations and community service.

A comparison of supervisors and patrolmen views of the public's knowledge and appreciation of the job of the police indicates only slight differences between the two groups. Table 4.17 indicates that more supervisors believe that the public appreciated the job of policemen, while more patrolmen believe that the public understands their work.

TABLE 4.17
POLICE PERCEPTION OF PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING
AND APPRECIATION OF POLICE WORK
N=121

<u>Does Public Understand Police Work?</u>	<u>Supervisors</u>	<u>Patrolmen</u>
Yes	52.4%	58%
No	42.9%	40%
Don't Know	4.7%	2%
<u>Does Public Appreciate Job of Policemen?</u>		
Yes	71.4%	66%
No	23.8%	34%
Don't Know	4.8%	

One possible explanation of the findings that supervisors

believe that the public appreciates the job of policemen to a greater degree than patrolmen is that supervisors are more apt to receive telephone calls of appreciation and complaint for and against individual policemen. However, the more salient fact is that the majority of both groups believe that the public they serve does appreciate their work.

Urban-Rural Comparison of Selected Characteristics

A comparison of age, income, education, and length of police service between urban officers and rural officers indicates that the urban officer is younger, better educated, better paid, and has been in police service a shorter period of time than his rural counterparts. Table 4.18 indicates, by parish and by organizational unit, the differences. An examination of the data on organization, which compares all sheriff's deputies and all police, regardless of parish, indicates that the deputies are slightly older, are better paid, better educated, and have slightly less time in police service than city policemen. It should be noted that the elected sheriffs of all three parishes have had a relatively stable tenure of office.

Summary

Police officers in the sample area were generally born in Louisiana, married, had a median age of 32, were white males, and surprisingly well-educated. Approximately one-third of the patrolmen had off-duty jobs to provide extra

TABLE 4.18
CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE BY PARISH AND ORGANIZATION OF
AVERAGE AGE, INCOME, EDUCATION, AND LENGTH OF SERVICE
N=100

Parish and Unit	Age	Income (Monthly)	Education	Length of Police Service
Whitewater	28.7	\$806	15 yrs.	3.1 yrs.
Sheriff	29	\$823	14.7	3.2
Police	28.4	\$786	15.2	3
Greentrees	33.8	\$746	12.7	4.8
Sheriff	32.6	\$924	12.6	3.6
Police	34.2	\$703	12.8	5.9
Redrock	47.6	\$701	11.3	10.3
Sheriff	55.6	\$843	10.2	14.6
Police	41	\$558	12.2	6.7
<u>Organization</u>				
Sheriff's Deputies	32.9	\$840	14	5
Police	31.6	\$726	13.7	5.5

income, vote in local, state, and national elections to a remarkable degree, and about two-thirds belong to either professional, social, or civic organizations. Approximately 57% were blue-collar workers prior to entering police service, while 76% of policemen's fathers fall in the blue-collar occupational status. The majority of policemen believe that their supervisors will support the decisions that they make in the field, and also believe that the public understands and appreciates police work. Urban officers were found to be younger, better educated, better paid, but in police service a shorter period of time than his rural counterpart. Deputies were found to be slightly older, better paid, better educated, and having less time in police

service than city police. Supervisory responses regarding qualities sought in police recruits, expectations of patrolmen decision-making, training, and other issues were discussed.

CHAPTER V

AN ANALYSIS OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

A summary of the analysis of variance of the independent and dependent variables is given in Table 5.1. Variables indicating statistical or directional support for hypotheses will be discussed in this and following chapters. Tables will be presented for data indicating statistical support and directional support. Variables not yielding statistically significant results are located in the Appendix.

At work, police generally see people at their worst. Injured or abandoned children, bodies scattered on a highway, families fighting, quarrelsome drunks, neighbors disagreeing, traffic violators, armed robbers, thieves operating by stealth, rapists, and killings are the ingredients of a policeman's daily tour of duty. The police, seeing people themselves under great stress, must react immediately and correctly in these life threatening situations. Yet the patrolman's work is not all excitement and "hot pursuit." He may drive for hours, especially during the daylight hours, and do no more than ticket a little old lady for failing to yield to traffic, or kill a stray dog

TABLE 5.1
SUMMARY TABLE OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

	Stress	Work Sat.	Co-Worker Sat.	Public Sat.	Pay Sat.	Promotion Sat.	Supervisor Sat.	Job Sat. (Overall)	Decision-Making	Roles
Sheriff/City Police	s		d	d		d		d		
Roles										
Public Understanding	s	s			s	s	s	s		
Public Appreciation	s	s	s		s	s	s	s		
Public Satisfaction										
Supervisory Concern	s								s	
Sup. Knowledge of Work	d									
Sufficient Training	s							d		
Supervisory Support										
Evaluation of Sup.	s							s		
Sat. w/equipment	s							d		
Complaints of Work	s									
Attractions of Work									d	
Supervisor Sat.	s									
Decision-Making										
Rural/Urban	d			d		d	d	d	d	s
Income										
Education	s							d		

s = Significant at .05.
d = Directional support, but not statistically significant.

that has been tearing up flower beds in a well-tended neighborhood. His times of activity are erratic, sometimes lonely, always unexpected. The patrolman cannot plan his day's work in neatly arranged segments. Danger is randomly experienced, and the patrolman knows he cannot always control or foresee what the outcome will be. Because of the

stress under which the patrolman daily operates it is important to know, as much as is possible, those factors which influence his occupational stress.

Stress, as indicated by respondents in the various organizations in the three parishes, are shown in averages by location and organization in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2
STRESS MEANS AMONG RESPONDENTS IN
ORGANIZATIONS BY LOCATION
N=100

Loc. and Org.	Stress	
	Means	N
Whitewater Police	29.62	26
Whitewater Sheriff	36.17	30
Greentrees Police (Major)	35.18	17
Greentrees Sheriff	32.83	6
Greentrees St. Troopers	32.50	2
Greentrees Police (Minor)	27.50	6
Greentrees Police (Minor)	29.00	2
Redrock Police	24.33	6
Redrock Sheriff	26.60	5
F Value - 2.95		
d.f. - 8		
P:F - .006		

The results indicate that there was a significant difference in stress experienced between organizations and location. Police officers in Whitewater Parish report lower stress than deputy sheriff officers in Whitewater; there was also lower stress among Redrock Parish police than among deputies in Redrock. Police in Greentrees, however, experience higher stress than deputies in Greentrees. Lowest stress was evidenced by police officers in Redrock Parish,

the police in Greentrees outlying towns, and was highest among deputies in Whitewater.

Income, Education, and Age

On the assumption that lower salary levels, especially in the rural parishes, might influence occupational stress, these variables were tested to see if there was a relationship. Neither statistical significance nor directional support was obtained for that assumption.

There was evidence which showed a positive relationship between education and occupational stress. As Table 5.3 shows, those with the most education had higher stress levels. Except for those in the category of 10-11 years of schooling, the table shows that the more education, the greater the stress. It might be argued that those with more education become more anxious over their inability to deal effectively and comprehensively with occupational problems; however, that is speculation and it could reasonably be a number of other things as well. In view of an increased drive to professionalize police departments, this issue requires additional study.

An examination of the correlation coefficients, which may be found in the Appendix, indicates that as age increases, stress decreases. It may be that with experience and greater exposure to the wide variety of duties of the patrolman, there would reasonably be less anxiety even when confronting the unexpected. The longer one remains a

policeman, the more tolerant of and comfortable with the unexpected he may become.

TABLE 5.3
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND EDUCATION LEVEL OF OFFICERS
N=100

Education	<u>Occupational Stress</u>	
	Means	N
7-9 Years	28.40	5
10-11 Years	33.00	3
High School Graduate	29.45	20
1-3 Years of College	31.08	48
College Graduate	36.5	15
College Graduate Plus Additional Hours	38.56	9
F Value - 2.79		
d.f. - 5		
P:F - .02		

Urban-Rural

There was directional support to the hypothesis that there would be greater stress among urban officers than rural officers, but the difference was not statistically significant. This finding is extremely interesting in that it indicates that the rural officer experiences about the same amount of stress as does his urban counterpart. Perhaps the earlier picture of the rural officer "puttering around" is not reflective of modern-day rural law enforcement.

Organization: City Police
and Deputy Sheriffs

A significant difference in amounts of stress was found between members of city police departments and deputy sheriffs. As Table 5.4 indicates, deputies experience higher levels of stress than do city policemen. One explanation of these findings might be that city police, covered by civil service regulations, experience greater job security, and thus less anxiety about job stability. Some deputies indicated to me that they "did not like the pressure of elections every four years" determining whether they had a job or not.

TABLE 5.4
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS IN CITY POLICE AND
SHERIFF ORGANIZATIONAL UNITS
N=100

Org. Units	Stress	
	Means	N
City Police	30.47	57
Deputies	34.42	43
F Value - 5.49		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .02		

The Public

It was pointed out earlier that the police were dependent upon their communities for support and were subject to community control. Further, that isolation from the public and the fact that police perceived themselves as unique could lead to behavior strategies and attitudes that

enhanced social distance between the police and the community. In order to see what relationships existed between police perception of the public and their occupational stress, respondents were asked if they believed the public understood or appreciated the work of policemen. Table 5.5 indicates that higher occupational stress existed among those reporting that the public does not understand police work, and lower stress existed among those reporting that they did not know whether the public understood police work or not.

TABLE 5.5
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF
PUBLIC'S UNDERSTANDING OF POLICE WORK
N=100

Public Understanding	Stress	
	Means	N
Yes	29.84	48
No	35.80	40
Don't Know	27.00	2
F Value - 6.89		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .002		

The data revealed that those reporting that they did not believe the public appreciated police work exhibited a higher amount of job stress than those which did (Table 5.6). There was, then, evidence to indicate that police perception of the public they daily deal with influence the amount of stress the officers experienced; those perceiving the public negatively experienced a higher amount of stress.

TABLE 5.6
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF
PUBLIC'S APPRECIATION OF POLICE WORK
N=100

Does the Public Appreciate Your Work?	Stress	
	Means	N
Yes	30.58	66
No	35.41	34
F Value - 7.98		
d.f. - 1		
P:F .006		

Table 5.7 examines the relationship between the occupational stress averages and the scores obtained from the "satisfaction with the public" scores obtained from the overall job satisfaction index. The results indicate clearly that as lower satisfaction with the public is indicated, stress increases significantly.

Supervision

Theoretically there was reason to believe that the structural features of the organizational units, specifically negative views or attitudes towards the supervisory structure, would be related to high occupational stress. Table 5.8 indicates that such a relationship existed. Higher occupational stress was found among those who held more negative perceptions of the supervisory structure, especially with regard to concern about the problems of policemen. It should be noted, however, that the majority, 83%, of the respondents believed that their supervisors

were concerned.

TABLE 5.7
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF
SATISFACTION WITH THE PUBLIC
N=100

Satisfaction With Public Scores	N	Stress Means	Category Means
18	11	27.73	
19 (High)	14	30.29	28.89
20	10	28.20	
21	6	32.33	
22	7	30.14	
23 (Medium)	3	31.00	31.73
24	6	35.83	
25	3	36.33	
26	9	28.56	
27	3	36.00	
28	5	38.00	
29	4	27.50	
30	2	36.00	
31	2	37.00	
32 (Low)	5	34.80	36.36
33	4	44.00	
35	3	33.67	
38	1	31.00	
44	1	55.00	
51	1	36.00	
F Value - 1.89			
d.f. - 19			
P:F - .03			

No statistical support was found for the relationship between stress and the patrolmen believing that supervisors knew about their problems; however there was directional support which indicated higher levels of stress existed among those who reported that they did not believe their supervisors knew about their problems. Again, it should be

noted that an extremely high percentage of the patrolmen, 92%, answered yes to the question.

The sample was fairly evenly divided on whether or not they were satisfied with the equipment provided by the department. Both personal equipment (weapons, uniforms, safety equipment) and unit equipment (patrol cars, communications equipment) plays an important part in the safety and duties of the patrolmen and this equipment, good or bad, is under the control of the supervisory echelon of the department. Of those reporting dissatisfaction with their equipment, 35 officers, or 77.8%, reported their major dissatisfaction was with their patrol cars or "units." Lack of proper maintenance of the units was the most frequently cited area of dissatisfaction with equipment. As shown in Table 5.8, however, those who were not satisfied with their equipment experienced higher stress than those who were satisfied with their equipment.

While 74% of the sample reported that they believed that they received enough training to make them efficient policemen, those who did not think they received enough training experienced higher amounts of stress than those who felt that their training was adequate.

Since policemen are expected to exercise a great deal of independent judgment by their supervisors, it seemed important to find out if policemen thought their decisions made in the field would be backed up by their supervisors. It was found that there was highest stress among patrolmen

TABLE 5.8
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND SUPERVISORY VARIABLES
N=100

Supervisory Variables	Stress Means	N
1. Are supervisors concerned enough about the problems of street cops?		
Yes	31.07	83
No	37.53	17
F Value - 8.74		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .004		
2. Do supervisors KNOW about problems that concern the street cop?		
Yes	32.09	92
No	34.14	7
Don't Know	26.00	1
F Value - .449		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .64		
3. Are you satisfied with the equipment provided by the department?		
Yes	29.94	51
No	34.49	49
F Value - 7.59		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .007		
4. Do supervisors give you opportunities for sufficient training to help you be an efficient cop?		
Yes	30.59	74
No	36.61	23
Don't Know	37.0	3
F Value - 5.29		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .007		
5. Are your decisions made in the field supported by your supervisors?		
Yes	31.71	94
No	26.00	1
Don't Know	42.00	5
F Value - 3.95		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .03		

who did not know whether their supervisors would support their field decisions or not. One puzzling aspect of the findings, however, was that lowest stress was found in the one patrolman who did not believe his supervisor would support his field decisions.

Table 5.9 relates amounts of occupational stress with the "satisfaction with supervisors" scale that is part of the overall Job Satisfaction Index. The results showed that

TABLE 5.9
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISORS
N=100

Satisfaction With Supervisors Scores	Stress Means	N
18	30.0	14
19 (High)	26.3	21
20	32.1	18
21 (Medium)	30.6	11
22	36.7	10
23	35.6	5
24	29.0	3
25	40.3	4
26	34.5	2
27 (Low)	40.3	3
28	38.5	2
29	40.3	3
31	34.0	3
34	46.0	1
F Value - 2.65		
d.f. - 13		
P:F .004		

higher stress existed among those respondents reporting lower levels of satisfaction with their supervisors.

Respondents in the lower stress category reported higher

satisfaction with supervisors.

Respondents were asked to evaluate their supervisors as excellent, good, fair, or poor. The findings, reported in Table 5.10, show that those with the highest stress levels evaluated their supervisors in the lowest category, while those with lowest stress levels reported supervisors in higher categories.

TABLE 5.10
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND POLICE EVALUATION
OF THEIR SUPERVISORS
N=100

Evaluation	Stress Means	N
Excellent	28.79	34
Good	33.27	45
Fair	34.00	11
Poor	36.7	10
F Value - 3.36		
d.f. - 3		
P:F - .02		

Patrolman Complaints and Attractions of Police Work

Respondents were asked to report their complaints about being a policeman, and what they liked best about being a policeman. This information was sought to determine if there were common areas of perceptions and common organizational structural features that influenced stress.

As shown in Table 5.11, those with highest stress levels reported complaints with working conditions in the department (shift work, favoritism, inadequate supervision,

insufficient training) followed closely by those who complained that the public neither understood nor supported the police. "Other" complaints were such things as unqualified police personnel, people fighting, and working with drunks. Those with lowest stress levels had no complaints about being policemen.

TABLE 5.11
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND COMPLAINTS ABOUT
BEING A POLICEMAN
N=100

Complaints	Stress Means	N
Low Salary	29.61	23
Working Conditions in the Department	34.63	43
Lack of Public Under- standing and Support	34.20	10
Promotion Policies	31.83	6
Other	31.55	9
None	25.55	9
F Value - 2.52		
d.f. - 5		
P:F - .03		

Findings regarding what policemen liked best about their work are given in percentages in Table 5.12, as no statistical nor directional support for a relationship to stress was found. Working conditions specifically reported were a congenial atmosphere, interesting work, a respect and admiration for co-workers, and "not being tied to a desk."

TABLE 5.12
 ATTRACTIONS TO POLICE WORK
 N=100

Attractions to Police Work	Percentage
Helping Profession	46.9
Variety in Duties	12.2
Responsibility and Decision-Making	10.2
Job Security	2.0
Respected Profession	4.1
Working Conditions	18.4
Other	6.1
	99.9

Decision-Making and Frequency
 and Number of Roles

It was expected that there would be a strong relationship between occupational stress and the number and variety of factors that had to be taken into account when a police officer decided whether to arrest or simply let a person off with a warning. It was also expected that the number of roles and frequency with which they were utilized would also have a bearing on stress; however, neither hypothesis was supported by the findings, either statistically or directionally.

Summary

Significant differences in amounts of stress were found between organizations and location. Lowest stress was found in city police in Redrock Parish, city police in outlying towns in Greentrees Parish, while highest stress was found among deputies in Whitewater Parish. The data

also showed a significant relationship between education and stress, with the more education, the more stress present. No significant difference was found in stress between rural and urban officers. Deputies, however, had significantly higher amounts of stress than city police. Patrolmen who believed that the public neither understood nor appreciated police work also exhibited higher levels of stress. Generally, patrolmen who have a positive view of their supervisors had lower levels of stress than those who viewed their supervisors negatively. Patrolmen who had complaints about the working conditions in their departments also had higher stress levels than those with no complaints. All patrolmen interviewed reported relatively low stress.

CHAPTER VI

AN ANALYSIS OF FACTORS INFLUENCING JOB SATISFACTION

The work of the police is too important to be in the hands of amateurs. Many police departments, recognizing this fact, want a stable, professional police force and make every effort to attract, train, and keep those selected and found to be fitted for the work. Satisfaction with one's work is an important part of the decision to invest a life time in a career. It seemed, therefore, important to determine the importance of selected factors which might influence job satisfaction. Again, tables will be presented and analyzed for data indicating statistical support, and directional support. Variables not yielding statistically significant results will be found in the Appendix.

Levels of job satisfaction reported by the respondents in the three parishes are reported by location and organization in Table 6.1. It should be remembered that there are six sub-categories of job satisfaction: work, co-workers, the public, pay, promotion system, and supervisors. The sum of all of these categories make up the overall Job Satisfaction Index.

No statistical significance was found between organizations in average levels of job satisfaction. Lowest job

TABLE 6.1
JOB SATISFACTION IN ORGANIZATIONS BY LOCATION
N=100

Location and Organization	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Whitewater Police	120.58	26
Whitewater Sheriff	125.90	30
Greentrees Police (Major)	126.29	17
Greentrees Sheriff	108.33	6
Greentrees St. Troopers	113.00	2
Greentrees Police (Minor)	122.00	6
Greentrees Police (Minor)	108.00	2
Redrock Police	128.00	6
Redrock Sheriff	125.20	5
F Value - 1.73		
d.f. - 8		
P:F - .10		
(Major) = largest city in Parish		
(Minor) = outlying towns in Parish		

satisfaction was found with Redrock City Police and Greentrees City Police. In Redrock, the most obvious explanation is that policemen there are dissatisfied with their pay. In Greentrees, the explanation might include several factors. Several patrolmen there mentioned that a very popular patrolman could not pass the promotion examination, and they were very unhappy about that. In fact, they had petitioned for a waiver of promotion requirements on his behalf. Most patrolmen there also mentioned that it was becoming increasingly difficult to live on their pay.

The highest job satisfaction averages were found in the Greentrees Sheriff's office and an outlying Greentrees police department.

Age, Income, and Education

Correlation coefficients, in the appendix, indicate that as age increases, patrolmen are less satisfied with their pay, but no other relationships were significant. There were also no significant relationships found between job satisfaction and income. This finding was surprising, as it seemed reasonable to assume that lower levels of pay would lead to a lower level of job satisfaction, but this was not the case. However, as will be seen below, when considering pay satisfaction alone, differences were noted.

There was directional support, but not statistically significant support, for a relationship between education and job satisfaction. It was found that as the educational level increases, job satisfaction lowers, with the exception of those patrolmen who have one to three years of college. Many explanations for these findings are possible. For example, the respondents with the most education, but least job satisfaction, may not be using all of their skills and this creates dissatisfaction; those in the one to three year college level may see law enforcement as a profession, yet it does not require the additional years of college work.

Rural-Urban

Very little differences were found in levels of job satisfaction between rural and urban officers. Statistical significance was found only in the category of satisfaction with pay. Table 6.2 indicates the results of pay

satisfaction among patrolmen in rural and urban areas.

TABLE 6.2
PAY SATISFACTION IN RURAL
AND URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Pay Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Rural	18.16	43
Urban	16.28	57
F Value - 11.70		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .0001		

Patrolmen in the rural areas are less satisfied with their pay than patrolmen in the urban areas. There were no other statistical differences found to be of significance in the other categories of job satisfaction, although there was directional support to indicate that satisfaction was higher in the categories of public satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, supervisory satisfaction, and overall job satisfaction, in the rural areas. Since patrolmen are paid less in the rural areas, the finding is understandable. Generally, it might be noted that rural policemen may have a closer relationship to the public, and may feel that with their level of education, they are in a respected profession. However, since there is only directional support for these findings, additional work would need to be done to substantiate these conclusions.

Organization: City Police
and Deputy Sheriffs

It was hypothesized that city police would experience greater job satisfaction than deputies whether they were in urban or rural parishes. It was believed that city police had greater job security, and that deputies were subjected to more political pressures and did not have the protection of civil service. The findings do not support this hypothesis. There were differences between the organizations in some categories, but there were no significant differences. Direction of satisfaction, by organization, is indicated below in Table 6.3

TABLE 6.3

JOB SATISFACTION IN POLICE AND SHERIFF DEPARTMENTS
N=100

<u>Categories</u>	<u>Higher Satisfaction</u>
Satisfaction With:	By Organizations
1. Work	Sheriff
2. Co-worker	City Police
3. The public	City Police
4. Pay	Sheriff
5. Promotion	City Police
6. Supervisory	Sheriff
7. Overall job	City Police

The Public

Apparently patrolmen perception of whether the public understands or appreciates their work has a greater influence on job satisfaction than was expected. The public with which the policemen work is the consumer of the police

product and they are apparently sensitive to them. Ninety-four percent of the respondents reported that as a general rule, the public treated them with courtesy and respect. Tables 6.4-6.7 indicate the findings in each category of satisfaction, and Table 6.8 indicates overall job satisfaction as related to police perception of the public's understanding. Table 6.4 indicates lower work satisfaction among those reporting that the public did not understand or appreciate the work of the police.

TABLE 6.4
WORK SATISFACTION AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF
PUBLIC'S UNDERSTANDING OF THEIR WORK
N=100

Public Understanding	Work Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Yes	23.09	58
No	24.42	40
Don't Know	23.5	2
F Value - 3.03		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .05		
Public Appreciation	Means	
	Means	N
Yes	23.20	66
No	24.47	34
F Value - 5.19		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .023		

There was no statistical support to indicate a significant relationship between lack of public understanding and co-worker satisfaction, or public appreciation and

co-worker satisfaction, but there was directional support indicating lower satisfaction with co-workers among patrolmen who perceived a lack of the public and understanding or appreciation.

Table 6.5 shows that there is less satisfaction with pay among those reporting the public did not understand police work, but higher pay satisfaction among those that did not know.

TABLE 6.5
PAY SATISFACTION AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF
PUBLIC'S UNDERSTANDING OF THEIR WORK
N=100

Public Understanding	Pay Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Yes	16.62	58
No	17.95	40
Don't Know	13.50	2
F Value - 4.43		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .014		
Public Appreciation	Means	
	Means	N
Yes	16.67	66
No	17.91	34
F Value - 4.37		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .037		

Table 6.6 indicates that there is lower satisfaction with the promotion system of their departments among those also reporting that the public did not understand/appreciate police work. Again we see a higher satisfaction with

promotions than with those that did not know.

TABLE 6.6
SATISFACTION WITH PROMOTION SYSTEM AND
POLICE PERCEPTION OF PUBLIC'S
UNDERSTANDING OF THEIR WORK
N=100

Public Understanding	<u>Promotion Satisfaction</u>	
	Means	N
Yes	14.43	58
No	16.15	40
Don't Know	13.00	2
F Value - 5.48		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .006		
Public Appreciation	<u>Promotion Satisfaction</u>	
	Means	N
Yes	14.36	66
No	16.50	34
F Value - 14.90		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .0004		

Table 6.7 indicates a lower satisfaction among those reporting the public did understand/appreciate or did not know whether the public understood/appreciated police work or not.

Table 6.8 indicates a lower overall job satisfaction among those reporting the public did not understand/appreciate or did not know whether the public understood, appreciated police work or not. These findings lend support to the theoretical position that the police are a part of a larger system that both influences and is influenced by that system.

TABLE 6.7

SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION AND POLICE PERCEPTION
OF PUBLIC'S UNDERSTANDING OF POLICE WORK
N=100

Public Understanding	Satisfaction with Supervision	
	Means	N
Yes	20.48	58
No	22.92	40
Don't Know	23.50	2
F Value - 6.64		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .002		
Public Appreciation	Means	
	Means	N
Yes	20.67	66
No	23.18	34
F Value - 12.62		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .0009		

TABLE 6.8

JOB SATISFACTION AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF
PUBLIC'S UNDERSTANDING OF POLICE WORK
N=100

Public Understanding	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Yes	117.69	58
No	130.25	40
Don't Know	122.00	2
F Value - 11.26		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .0001		
Public Appreciation	Means	
	Means	N
Yes	118.21	66
No	131.70	34
F Value - 25.44		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .0001		

Supervisors

There is evidence to support the hypothesis that the more positively supervisors were viewed by patrolmen, the greater the job satisfaction. Table 6.9 indicates that policemen who believed their supervisors were not concerned about the problems of the street cop experienced lower job satisfaction than those who thought their supervisors were concerned.

TABLE 6.9
JOB SATISFACTION AND SUPERVISORY CONCERN
N=100

Supervisor Concerned?	<u>Job Satisfaction</u>	
	Means	N
Yes	120.53	83
No	133.88	17
F Value - 14.24		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .0005		

There was no statistical or directional significance between job satisfaction and police belief that their supervisors knew about the problems of the patrolmen. While the findings indicated that police who were not satisfied with their equipment nor their training opportunities, tended to be less satisfied with their jobs, the relationship was not statistically significant.

It was found, however, that when patrolmen did not know or did not think that their supervisors would support

them in the decisions that they made in the field, job satisfaction was lowest. Table 6.10 indicates that job satisfaction is highest among those who believe that their supervisors will back up their field decisions.

TABLE 6.10
JOB SATISFACTION AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF
SUPERVISORY SUPPORT
N=100

Supervisors Support Your Field Decisions?	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Yes	121.87	94
No	129.00	1
Don't Know	139.00	5
F Value - 3.78		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .03		

In evaluating their supervisors, patrolmen with the highest job satisfaction ranked their supervisors in the highest category of evaluation. As job satisfaction decreases, perception of supervisors also decreases in each category. The data in Table 6.11 demonstrates this relationship.

Complaints and Attractions of Police Work

There is no statistical support to indicate that the complaints policemen have about the structured features of their work influences job satisfaction. There is directional support which indicates that the patrolmen

complaining about working conditions, a lack of public understanding and support, and low salaries, have lower levels of job satisfaction. There was neither statistical nor directional support for the hypothesis that factors which police liked best about police work have an influence on their job satisfaction.

TABLE 6.11
JOB SATISFACTION AND POLICE EVALUATION
OF THEIR SUPERVISORS
N=100

Evaluation	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Excellent	120.32	34
Good	121.49	45
Fair	122.36	11
Poor	137.60	10
F Value - 4.57		
d.f. - 3		
P:F - .005		

Decision-Making and Frequency and Number of Roles

No support was found for the hypothesis that decision-making and discretionary power influence job satisfaction. Correlation coefficients indicate that there is a relationship between certain categories of job satisfaction and number and frequency of roles utilized. The more roles played, the less satisfaction with supervisors, the public, promotions, and overall job satisfaction. However, the analysis of variance tests indicate no significant relationships.

Stress and Job Satisfaction

In testing the relationship between the two dependent variables, using correlation coefficients, the data indicated that the higher the stress, the less satisfaction with work, supervisor, co-worker, public, promotion, and overall job satisfaction. Pay satisfaction was the only sub-category of job satisfaction that indicated no significant relationship influencing stress. This seems to suggest that by reducing stress among police officers, job satisfaction could be increased.

Summary

No significant differences in levels of job satisfaction was found between organizations and location. Highest job satisfaction was found in the Greentrees sheriff's office and an outlying city police department in Greentrees Parish. No statistically significant differences were found between levels of education and job satisfaction. Patrolmen in rural areas were less satisfied with their pay than patrolmen in urban areas. No differences were found between city police and deputies in levels of job satisfaction. Patrolmen who report that they believe the public understood and appreciated police work had significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than patrolmen who did not believe that their work was understood or appreciated. Patrolmen who perceived their supervisors positively also had higher job satisfaction than those who perceived their supervisors negatively.

CHAPTER VII

POLICE ROLES AND DECISION-MAKING

Roles

It is easy to get a distorted picture of the work of a policeman for two major reasons:

a) Generally the only time the individual citizen comes in contact with the police is in a hostile or stressful situation. The policeman may simply stop a citizen for a traffic violation, and the citizen feels resentful of the anticipated cost of the fine or inconvenience of going to court. They may feel the violation is too minor and the policeman should be trying to prevent major crime. The policeman, on the other hand, having seen repeatedly the results of speeding or running traffic signs, feels that he is protecting both the individual citizen and the community as well as enforcing the law. As seen in Table 5.12 in Chapter V, 47% of the policemen surveyed said that what they liked best about being a policeman was that it was a helping profession. In spite of this police perception, the actual contacts between police and citizens usually are those in which they are adversaries, and the public views it from that perspective.

b) Television programs, saturating the media for

several seasons, generally portray exciting, dramatic situations in which police are seen as either not capable of solving crimes without the help of private investigators, or as super-heroes.

Police in this survey were asked what roles they played, and the frequency of role performance in an effort to discover the number and frequency roles they actually performed. Table 7.1 gives the types of roles and the frequency with which those roles were performed. The last column of the table shows the percentage of patrolmen who said that they performed each of the roles with great frequency (rather often, or nearly all the time).

From Table 7.1 it can be seen that 96% of the patrolmen are on routine patrol duty most frequently.¹ It is obvious that it is while they are on patrol that many of the other roles are also performed. It is interesting to note that the next most frequently reported task was the investigation of family disputes. Two other frequently reported activities were receiving station instructions and record-keeping which involves the detailed writing of reports of their activities. The frequency with which patrolmen have to become involved in family disputes indicates that training in crisis intervention should perhaps be an on-going

¹The two respondents reporting that they never performed patrol duty were both investigators, one in Greentrees Parish and one in Redrock Parish. In larger departments they would be classified as detectives and would not have been included in the sample.

part of police training.

TABLE 7.1
KINDS OF ROLES AND FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE
N=100

Roles	Frequency Percentages					Number in Upper Frequency Categories (RO & A)
	N	R	S	RO	A	
Serving warrants	3	17	44	29	7	36%
Arresting offender	0	4	37	43	16	59%
Traffic control	3	16	24	35	22	57%
Street disputes	2	21	34	32	11	43%
Family disputes	0	4	19	47	30	77%
Neighbor disputes	1	12	27	46	14	60%
Business complaint	5	29	39	23	4	27%
Transporting prisoners	1	21	40	30	8	38%
In court	3	11	49	35	2	37%
Station briefing	4	14	11	22	49	71%
Training	11	25	23	36	5	41%
Felony-in-progress calls	3	51	34	9	3	12%
Felony complaints	1	16	42	29	12	41%
Patrol	2	0	2	22	74	96%
Responding to calls for assistance	1	3	22	52	22	74%
Public safety	1	10	50	30	9	39%
Protection of property	0	6	23	40	31	71%
Civil assistance	2	17	36	36	9	45%
Giving advice	0	8	32	43	17	60%
Refer to other agencies	3	16	47	29	5	34%
Change agent	5	19	54	16	6	22%
Transporting citizens	5	18	51	26	0	26%
Record-keeping	2	14	13	20	51	71%
Role model	37	17	25	17	4	21%
Speaking to groups	38	31	24	7	0	7%
Community service	17	13	39	13	18	31%

N = Never
R = Rarely
S = Sometimes
RO = Rather Often
A = Nearly All the Time

The least frequent activity was that of patrolmen speaking to community groups. In view of the previous finding that occupational stress and job satisfaction were closely related to police perception of the public, this might be one area of activity that should be increased. The other category showing little activity was that of responding to felony-in-progress calls. If police have prior knowledge or have reason to suspect that a felony will take place, they can and do stake-out the premises in the hope of apprehending the suspects. If they do not, they are dependent on citizens reporting to them. Otherwise, it is simply a matter of chance as to whether or not they will discover the crime during its commission. Police departments try to increase their chances by patrolling more frequently in the high crime areas of their communities, but there is still a good bit of luck involved. In short, there are some areas wherein police could be involved with greater frequency in order to encourage public appreciation and cooperation. For example, acting as change agents, and seeing themselves in that role, acting as role models, and seeing themselves in that role, being trained to have greater knowledge of agencies to which people can be referred when police cannot help. The police would argue that they have enough to do as it is, and they are justified in that position. But if police-community relations are so important to the police departments, not only in solving crimes and apprehending criminals, but to the perceptions of the officers

toward their work, new efforts in that direction would seem to be required.

Table 7.2 shows relationship between roles and organization and location. The data reveal that the city police in Greentrees and Redrock Parishes had a higher frequency of performing the various roles than did the sheriff departments. There was little difference in frequency of role performance between the city police and sheriff departments in Whitewater, although the city police frequency was slightly higher.

TABLE 7.2
ROLES AND ORGANIZATIONS BY LOCATION
N=100

Organization/Location	Role	
	Means	N
Whitewater Police	94.8	26
Whitewater Sheriff	94.7	30
Greentrees City Police	93.4	17
Greentrees Sheriff	78.0	6
Greentrees St. Troopers	96.5	2
Greentrees Police (Outlying)	88.8	6
Greentrees Police (Outlying)	78.5	2
Redrock Police	90.7	6
Redrock Sheriff	85.2	5
F Value - 4.11		
d.f. - 8		
P:F - .0005		

It is interesting to note that the state troopers reported the highest frequencies and kinds of roles performed; however, there were only two state troopers in the sample and

more extensive work should be done on the differences between the organizations with larger samples.

A significant difference was found in the frequency of role performance between the rural and urban parishes (Table 7.3). Urban officers performed more roles with greater frequency than did rural officers. The data indicated that police generally perform the same types of duties regardless of location, urban or rural. This, of course, seems to suggest that rural officers need the same type of training as do their urban counterparts.

TABLE 7.3
FREQUENCY OF ROLES AND RURAL/URBAN LOCATION
N=100

Location	Roles	
	Means	N
Rural	89.09	43
Urban	94.42	57
F Value - 8.43		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .005		

An interesting sidelight should be noted. After interviewing the first twenty-four men, one of the respondents mentioned that, in spite of popular opinion, policemen rarely fired their weapons. They drew their weapons relatively often, he pointed out, but almost never fired them. All the remaining respondents were then asked if they had ever fired their weapons in the line of duty, and if so,

under what circumstances. Of the remaining 76 patrolmen who were asked, 47, or 62%, reported that they had fired their weapons under various circumstances, which are reported in Table 7.4. This data indicates that policemen have a healthy

TABLE 7.4
CIRCUMSTANCES OF FIRING WEAPONS
N=47

Circumstances	Percentage
1. At person(s)	6.4
2. Warning shots, in the air	31.9
3. Shooting at vehicles	8.5
4. Destroying animals (rabid, destructive, or at request of owner)	40.4
5. No response	12.8
	100.0

respect for using their weapons, and it would appear that patrolmen in the areas studied seldom fire their weapons at other persons. The data are incomplete, and may have indicated even rarer weapon useage had an additional question been asked regarding how many times in their career they had fired their weapons.

Decision-Making and Discretionary Power

The term "discretionary power" infers that police use their judgment and make decisions regarding which laws they will enforce (partially or fully) and which persons to whom they will decide to apply those laws. Kenneth C. Davis has

discussed at length the issues dealing with selective enforcement of laws, and after studying the Chicago police department concluded the following:

The central fact is that the police falsely pretend to enforce all criminal law; the reason for this pretense is that they believe the law requires them to enforce all criminal law but they are unable to. The false pretense is pervasive and has many consequences.²

Davis argues that if selective enforcement of law is openly acknowledged, the problem can then be dealt with openly, giving policemen stronger administrative guidelines in the conduct of his duties.

No patrolman in this sample denied selective enforcement, and none denied that there were extraneous factors outside of law, that influenced their own selections. It was beyond the scope of this study to study discretion in applying criminal law; rather, patrolmen were asked to identify those factors which influenced their decision to arrest a person or not. Table 7.5 indicates the percentage of patrolmen that reported the factors they did take into account when making an arrest. Fifteen percent of the officers reported voluntarily that their own attitudes made a difference in how they conducted themselves on duty and in making decisions; six percent said that the previous record of the offender made a difference to them, and four percent volunteered that the physical evidence at the scene made a difference in their decision-making.

²Davis, Police Discretion, p. iii.

TABLE 7.5
DECISION-MAKING
N=100

Influencing Factors	<u>Percentage</u>	
	Yes	No
1. Offender attitude	94	6
2. Age of offender	49	51
3. Dress of offender	10	90
4. Speech of offender	46	54
5. Race of offender	6	94
6. Sex of offender	27	73
7. Specific law	72	28
8. Type of offense	83	17
9. Departmental policy	70	30
10. Presence of other officer	35	65
11. Position of offender in community	19	81

Two points are particularly striking about these responses. First, that 28% of the respondents said that they did not take specific law into account when making their arrest decisions. They indicated that the law itself was not "cut and dried" and there were other factors that influenced them. Almost all respondents stated that certain major crimes gave them no lee-way in application, but that the majority of their work required them to "use their heads." A second point that should be noted is that 94% of the respondents said that the attitude of the offender toward the confrontation with the police made a difference in their decision. They mentioned that if an offender was hostile or belligerent, they would carry out the "letter of

the law." In this case, the perception of the officer determines the arrest, not the law.

The respondents which reported that their own attitudes influenced their arrest decisions mentioned that "if they were worried," "had had a fight with my wife," or "got up on the wrong side of the bed." Officers reported that while they knew these factors were not supposed to influence them, they knew that they were "harder" on offenders at those times.

Each of the officers was asked if there was any particular offense (other than obvious felonies) that regardless of the above factors, they would make an arrest; in short, did they have a "pet peeve" that they felt especially strong about. Fifty-seven of the officers reported that they did have some "built-in" prejudices about certain offenses and would arrest people for these offenses regardless of other factors (Table 7.6).

TABLE 7.6
OFFICER PREJUDICES
N=57

Offense	Percentage Reporting
DWI	22.8
Child Abuse	17.5
Traffic Violations	8.8
Violence Upon Women	19.3
Other (drugs, hurting old people, drunks)	29.8
	99.9

No statistically significant differences were found in levels of decision-making factors between organizations by location, but certain interesting directionally supported differences should be noted (Table 7.7).

TABLE 7.7
DECISION-MAKING IN ORGANIZATIONS BY LOCATION
N=100

Location and Organization	Decision-Making	
	Means	N
Whitewater Police	23.12	26
Whitewater Sheriff	22.67	30
Greentrees Police (Major)	22.00	17
Greentrees Sheriff	23.17	6
Greentrees St. Troopers	23.50	2
Greentrees Police (Minor)	21.67	6
Greentrees Police (Minor)	23.50	2
Redrock Police	22.83	6
Redrock Sheriff	21.80	5
F Value - .975		
d.f. - 8		
P:F - .54		
(Major) = largest city		
(Minor) = outlying towns		

It should be noted that in both Whitewater and Redrock Parishes, the police take more factors into account in their decision-making than in the sheriff offices. In Greentrees Parish, the picture is a bit more confusing. One of the highest scores was obtained among an outlying police department, but also one of the lowest, and in city areas, the police take more factors into account than does the sheriff's office.

There was no statistical support for the belief that

there would be differences in the numbers of factors influencing decision-making between rural and urban officers. There was directional support to indicate that urban officers had slightly higher scores, indicating they took more factors into account in deciding whether or not to arrest.

There was neither statistical support nor directional support to indicate there was a relationship between decision-making and occupational stress or job satisfaction. This was surprising because it was believed that the complexity of decision-making would add to occupational stress and decrease job satisfaction. This may be explained by the fact that patrolmen believed that their supervisors would support their field decisions; so while decision-making may make a great difference in how the law is applied and to whom it is applied, the complexity does not inhibit job satisfaction nor increase stress. If this is true, it lends support to the theoretical position that parameters of police behavior and attitude are established in the departments, and adherence to these norms, within the range of tolerance, allows officers to make judgments without too much strain.

Summary

Significant differences were found in numbers of roles performed by officers in different organizations and locations. The data reveal that city police in Greentrees and Redrock Parishes had a higher frequency of role performance

than did the sheriff departments, but there was little difference between frequency of role performance between deputies and city police in urban Whitewater Parish. Urban officers perform more roles with greater frequency than rural officers.

No statistically significant differences were found in levels of decision-making factors between organizations or locations, nor was there a relationship between decision-making, occupational stress and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The objectives of this study were to study characteristics of the police in rural and smaller urban areas and to see what differences, if any, existed between rural and urban officers, city police and deputies, in levels of occupational stress and job satisfaction. A summary of the findings for the hypotheses is as follows:

Hypothesis 1

The number of roles required of police officers is positively and significantly associated with the stress of the officer.

Results.--The hypothesis was not supported by the data and is therefore rejected. While there were significant differences in types and numbers of roles performed between the various locations and organizations, the data revealed no relationship between roles and stress.

Hypothesis 2

The urban officer will experience more stress than the rural officer.

Results.--The hypothesis was not supported by the data and is therefore rejected. There was directional support to

indicate that the urban officer experienced more stress but the findings were not statistically significant. It is possible that had more metropolitan parishes been selected for survey, the differences in stress would have been more marked between urban and rural officers.

Hypothesis 3

Deputies will experience greater occupational stress than municipal police officers, regardless of location.

Results.--This hypothesis was supported by the data and is therefore accepted. Sheriff deputies experience greater stress than city police officers, while performing their roles with less frequency.

Hypothesis 4

Greater amounts of stress will be experienced by officers who perceive their supervisors negatively.

Results.--This hypothesis was supported by the data and is therefore accepted. Greater stress is experienced by officers who perceive their supervisors negatively and who are dissatisfied with both the training and working conditions within their departments.

Hypothesis 5

Greater amounts of stress will be experienced by police officers who believe that the public does not understand their work.

Results.--The hypothesis was supported by the data and

is therefore accepted.

Hypothesis 6

Greater amounts of stress will be experienced by police officers who believe that the public does not appreciate their work.

Results.--This hypothesis was supported by the data and is therefore accepted. The findings indicate that when police believe that the public neither understands nor appreciates their work, they experience greater occupational stress. This finding lends support to the theoretical perspective that police are an integral part of the larger social system and that they are directly affected by that system.

Hypothesis 7

Patrolmen experiencing greater satisfaction with equipment provided by the department will experience less stress than those who are dissatisfied with their equipment.

Results.--The hypothesis was supported by the data and is therefore accepted.

Hypothesis 8

The more positively supervisors are perceived by the patrolmen, the greater the job satisfaction.

Results.--The hypothesis was supported by the data and is therefore accepted. When police officers believe their supervisors are concerned about patrolmen problems, and view

their supervisors positively, job satisfaction is higher. The data showed that as positive perception of supervisors decreased, job satisfaction also decreased significantly.

Hypothesis 9

The lower the salary received, the lower the job satisfaction of the patrolman.

Results.--The hypothesis was not supported by the data and is therefore rejected. Data indicated that as age increases, patrolmen become less satisfied with their pay, and that rural officers are less satisfied with their pay than are urban officers; however, low salaries did not significantly influence overall job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 10

Municipal police officers will experience greater job satisfaction than deputies in the various sheriff offices, rural or urban parishes.

Results.--The hypothesis was not supported by the data and is therefore rejected. Apparently while job insecurity, or other factors are present in the departments create greater stress for deputies, job satisfaction is unaffected by those factors. There was some directional support to indicate that city police were better satisfied with their co-workers, the public, their promotion system, and overall job satisfaction, but it was not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 11

Greater job satisfaction will be experienced by patrolmen who believe that the public understands their work.

Results.--The hypothesis is supported by the data and is therefore accepted.

Hypothesis 12

Greater job satisfaction will be experienced by patrolmen who believe that the public appreciates their work.

Results.--The hypothesis was supported by the data and is therefore accepted. Every aspect of overall job satisfaction, as measured by the sub-categories of satisfaction with work, satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with pay, and satisfaction with supervisors were significantly related to police perception of the public's understanding and appreciation of their work.

Hypothesis 13

There will be a difference in amounts of job satisfaction experienced between rural and urban officers.

Results.--The hypothesis was not supported by the data and is therefore rejected. Only in the sub-category of pay satisfaction were any statistically significant differences noted between urban and rural officers.

Hypothesis 14

Urban officers will perform more roles with greater frequency than will rural officers.

Results.--The hypothesis was supported by the data and is therefore accepted. Significant differences were found in roles performed by organization and location. There were almost no differences found in numbers of roles performed between city police and deputies in the urban parish, while city police in the rural parishes had higher frequencies of role performance.

Hypothesis 15

The larger the number of factors patrolmen take into account when making a decision to arrest a person, the greater the occupational stress.

Results.--The hypothesis was not supported by the data and is therefore rejected.

Hypothesis 16

The larger the number of factors patrolmen take into account when making a decision to arrest a person, the lower the job satisfaction.

Results.--The hypothesis was not supported by the data and is therefore rejected. The findings for the last two hypotheses was particularly surprising. It was believed that the complexity of decision-making would have a negative influence on both occupational stress and job satisfaction.

Advantages of study

This study focused attention on smaller city and rural police in an effort to determine some of the differences

that might exist in occupational stress and job satisfaction between those groups. The majority of previous police studies have focused on metropolitan police departments.

The study suggests that assumed differences between rural and urban area law enforcement officers are less pronounced than in the past, and demonstrates that the police, at least in the surveyed areas, are cooperative with research efforts.

Limitations of study

The major limitation of the study is that the selection of a smaller city urban parish minimized differences that might exist between law enforcement personnel in the most urban and most rural parishes. Research in larger metropolitan police forces in Louisiana should be conducted to overcome this limitation.

The study was designed as exploratory and other pertinent factors that could affect the results were not fully considered. Factors such as community political structures, community power, community perception of police, broader psychological measures of the police, personal and marital pressures, deeper explorations of the supervisory echelon of the various organizational units, including administration, budgeting, law enforcement philosophy, and responses to community pressures are just a few that need to be included in future studies.

Conclusion

The major differences between rural and urban police officers observed in this study are that urban officers are more highly paid, are younger, better educated, have been policemen a shorter length of time, and engage in a larger number of roles more frequently than their rural counterparts. While relatively low stress levels were reported, the significant difference, at least in stress experienced, relies not on working in a rural or urban area but with a sheriff's department or a city police department. In view of this fact, greater emphasis should be placed on research efforts in the various sheriff departments in order to more specifically identify factors which influence stress among deputies.

While rural agencies have fewer policemen, larger territories to cover, and a less concentrated population, their duties appear to be the same as in urban areas. This suggests that training for officers in rural areas is important and more structured and innovative methods should be instituted for police officers in rural areas by agencies responsible for training police officers. A minimum number of city police and deputies are utilized in rural areas, and it is difficult, if not impossible, to send these men away for weeks, or even days, of training. A closer coordination of the law enforcement agencies activities, including the state police, might alleviate this problem.

Police appear to be well-satisfied with their jobs, and the most significant influences on job satisfaction and stress, based upon this study, are with the supervisory echelons of their departments and the general public. It would appear that there should be increased efforts, on the part of police, to undertake programs to improve police-community relations. In my judgment, this is a police responsibility since the police themselves would benefit from the program, not only in terms of greater cooperation from the public but also in terms of less anxiety and greater job satisfaction within their own departments. To achieve the same end, it would appear that police supervisors need to be more aware of their role in influencing the men in their departments since the patrolmen apparently look to their supervisors for validation of role performance.

Suggestions for future research

A problem repeatedly mentioned by respondents during the interview process was that of a lack of cooperation and coordination between police and sheriff departments. Rivalries within larger departments also existed. Almost certainly rivalries and lack of coordination are more pronounced in particular parishes; however, the extent that jealousies and/or lack of cooperation inhibit law enforcement activities either within single departments, or between organizations, is presently unknown.

This study indicated that decision-making is

apparently not burdensome to police officers, and indeed may be one of the attractions to police work. While previous studies indicate that particular personality-types are not drawn to police work, additional research that concentrated on qualities of leadership, independence of judgment, and altruism is necessary.

The utilization of auxiliary forces by law enforcement needs further exploration to determine their usefulness and efficiency. Types of work they are called upon to perform, under what conditions, needs to be specified in order to assess proper training, supervision, and assignments.

A more detailed examination of the causes of stress among police officers is imperative with the additional factors mentioned in the section on limitations of this study being taken into account. Particularly, investigation into the impact of police response to the general public needs greater attention.

Additional research in types and frequencies of role performance should lead to a closer correspondence between roles performed and training provided. Police officers cannot be, and should not be expected to be all things to all people. Realistic roles should be specified; if the public then demands additional services, additional financing of those services would have to be provided. The point is that specifying roles and performance standards are the responsibility of police administrators, not individual patrolmen

making decisions spontaneously.

Research needs to be conducted on personnel turn-over rates in the various police departments. Experienced officers are absolutely necessary to a stable, efficient police department. It is essential, therefore, that administrators and funding agencies have specific knowledge of problems leading to individuals leaving police service.

Replicated state studies of the police need to be undertaken, systematically and extensively, so that a realistic picture of the problems and needs of law enforcement can be empirically determined. In Louisiana, a state study, centrally coordinated, could become a model for other states, so that in time, national standards and goals would have a reasonable chance for implementation.

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APPENDIX 1

The appendix contains tables that were statistically tested for relationships, and found to be only directionally supportive, or of no statistical significance. For easy reference, scales are given below:

TABLE A.1

<u>Stress</u>	<u>Pay Satisfaction</u>
15 - 27 = Low	10 - 15 = High
28 - 35 = Medium	16 - 18 = Medium
36 - = High	19 - = Low
<u>Overall Job Satisfaction</u>	<u>Promotion Satisfaction</u>
97 - 115 = High	9 - 14 = High
116 - 128 = Medium	15 - 16 = Medium
129 - = Low	17 - = Low
<u>Work Satisfaction</u>	<u>Supervisor Satisfaction</u>
18 - 22 = High	18 - 19 = High
23 - 25 = Medium	20 - 21 = Medium
26 - = Low	22 - = Low
<u>Co-Worker Satisfaction</u>	<u>Decision Making</u>
18 - = High	17 - 21 = High
19 - 20 = Medium	22 - 23 = Medium
21 - = Low	24 - = Low
<u>Public Satisfaction</u>	<u>Roles</u>
18 - 20 = High	65 - 87 = Low
21 - 26 = Medium	89 - 95 = Medium
27 - = Low	96 - = High

APPENDIX 2

TABLE A.2

WORK SATISFACTION IN POLICE AND SHERIFF OFFICES
N=100

Offices	Work Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Police	23.70	57
Sheriff	23.53	43
F Value - .093		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .76		

TABLE A.3

CO-WORKER SATISFACTION IN POLICE AND SHERIFF OFFICES
N=100

Offices	Co-Worker Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Police	20.754	57
Sheriff	21.14	43
F Value - .267		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .61		

TABLE A.4
PUBLIC SATISFACTION IN POLICE AND SHERIFF OFFICES
N=100

Offices	Public Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Police	24.28	57
Sheriff	24.91	43
F Value - .255		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .62		

TABLE A.5
PAY SATISFACTION IN POLICE AND SHERIFF OFFICES
N=100

Offices	Pay Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Police	17.44	57
Sheriff	16.63	43
F Value - 1.98		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .16		

TABLE A.6
PROMOTION SATISFACTION IN POLICE AND SHERIFF OFFICES
N=100

Offices	Promotion Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Police	14.96	57
Sheriff	15.256	43
F Value - .262		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .62		

TABLE A.7

SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISORS IN POLICE AND SHERIFF OFFICES
N=100

Offices	Satisfaction With Supervisors	
	Means	N
Police	21.63	57
Sheriff	21.37	43
F Value - .130		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .72		

TABLE A.8

JOB SATISFACTION IN POLICE AND SHERIFF OFFICES
N=100

Offices	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Police	122.77	57
Sheriff	122.83	43
F Value - .0005		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .98		

TABLE A.9
ROLES SCALE AND JOB SATISFACTION
N=100

Role Scale Scores	N	Job Satisfaction Means
65	1	103.00
72	1	130.00
74	1	120.00
77	3	123.00
79	3	112.00
80	4	115.25
81	2	116.50
82	4	120.50
83	2	130.50
84	3	121.33
85	1	142.00
86	3	117.67
87	4	123.25
89	4	120.75
90	2	113.50
91	5	124.20
92	6	118.00
93	1	124.00
94	12	120.17
95	6	117.83
96	2	139.50
97	3	128.00
98	3	124.33
99	1	134.00
100	2	128.00
101	1	140.00
102	5	120.60
103	6	133.50
105	1	125.00
107	2	145.00
108	3	120.33
111	3	125.00

F Value: .77 with 31 d.f.

P:F - .79

TABLE A.10
STRESS AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF WHETHER SUPERVISORS
KNOW ABOUT PROBLEMS OF STREET COPS
N=100

Does Supervisor Know About Cop Problems?	Stress	
	Means	N
Yes	32.09	92
No	34.14	7
Don't Know	26.00	1
F Value - .449		
d.f. - 2		
P:F - .65		

TABLE A.11
DECISION-MAKING IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Decision-Making	
	Means	N
Rural	22.33	43
Urban	22.88	57
F Value - 2.19		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .14		

TABLE A.12
STRESS AND WHAT POLICE LIKE BEST ABOUT THEIR WORK
N=100

Like Best	Stress	
	Means	N
Helping Profession	30.43	46
Variety in duties	34.58	12
Responsibility and making decisions	31.60	10
Job Security	28.00	2
Respected Profession	34.00	4
Working Conditions	36.22	18
Other	27.67	6
F Value - 1.59		
d.f. -	6	
P:F -	.16	

TABLE A.13
JOB SATISFACTION AND WHETHER SUPERVISORS
KNOW ABOUT PROBLEMS OF POLICE
N=100

Does Supervisor Know About Police Problems?	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Yes	122.77	92
No	121.71	7
Don't Know	133.00	1
F Value - .276		
d.f. -	2	
P:F -	.76	

TABLE A.14

JOB SATISFACTION AND POLICE PERCEPTION OF WHETHER
THEY RECEIVE SUFFICIENT TRAINING
N=100

Do supervisors give you opportunities to receive sufficient training?	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Yes	121.12	74
No	127.48	23
Don't Know	128.33	3
F Value - 2.049		
d.f. -	2	
P:F -	.13	

TABLE A.15

JOB SATISFACTION AND POLICE SATISFACTION
WITH EQUIPMENT
N=100

Are you satisfied with equipment pro- vided by the department?	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Yes	121.57	51
No	124.08	49
F Value - .786		
d.f. -	1	
P:F -	.62	

TABLE A.16
 JOB SATISFACTION AND POLICE COMPLAINTS
 ABOUT THEIR WORK
 N=100

Police Complaints	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Low salary	123.83	23
Working Conditions	124.35	43
Lack of public understanding and support	128.80	10
Promotion policies	116.67	6
Other	118.22	9
None		9
F Value - 1.52		
d.f. -	5	
P:F -	.19	

TABLE A.17
 JOB SATISFACTION AND WHAT POLICE LIKE BEST
 ABOUT THEIR WORK
 N=100

Like Best	Job Satisfaction	
	Means	N
Helping Profession	121.35	46
Variety in duties	121.67	12
Responsibility and making decisions	121.70	10
Job Security	120.50	2
Respected Profession	137.75	4
Working Conditions	126.89	18
Other	119.67	6
F Value - 1.15		
d.f. -	6	
P:F -	.34	

TABLE A.18
STRESS AND DECISION-MAKING
N=100

Decision-Making Scores	Stress	
	N	Stress Means
17	1	24.00
18	3	37.33
19	1	25.00
20	6	32.83
21	13	33.69
22	18	33.94
23	25	33.96
24	21	28.38
25	8	31.38
26	2	30.50
27	2	26.50
F Value - 1.03		
d.f. - 10		
P:F - .43		

TABLE A.19
JOB SATISFACTION AND DECISION-MAKING
N=100

Decision-Making Scores	Job Satisfaction	
	N	Means
17	1	130.00
18	3	117.00
19	1	112.00
20	6	122.67
21	13	126.15
22	18	129.00
23	25	122.12
24	21	118.33
25	8	123.25
26	2	121.00
27	2	111.50
F Value - .889		
d.f. - 10		
P:F - .55		

TABLE A.20
STRESS AND INCOME
N=99

Income (Monthly)	N	Stress Means
\$600-748	46	30.46
\$800-980	43	32.93
\$1,000-1,190	8	36.25
Over \$1,200	2	32.50
F Value - 1.37		
d.f. - 3		
P:F - .26		

TABLE A.21
JOB SATISFACTION AND INCOME
N=99

Income (Monthly)	N	Job Satisfaction Means
\$600-748	46	121.70
\$800-980	43	125.79
\$1,000-1,190	8	115.88
Over \$1,200	2	113.00
F Value - 1.71		
d.f. - 3		
P:F - .17		

TABLE A.22
JOB SATISFACTION AND EDUCATION
N=100

Education	N	Job Satisfaction Means
7-9 years	5	121.60
10-11 years	3	123.67
High School Grad	20	125.05
1-3 yrs. college	48	119.90
College Grad	15	126.27
College Grad plus	9	127.89
F Value - .92		
d.f. - 5		
P:F - .53		

TABLE A.23
STRESS IN RURAL/URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Means	N
Rural	31.12	43
Urban	32.96	57
F Value - 1.16		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .29		

TABLE A.24
WORK SATISFACTION IN RURAL/URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Means	N
Rural	23.63	43
Urban	23.63	57
F Value - .00004		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .99		

TABLE A.25

CO-WORKER SATISFACTION IN RURAL/URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Means	N
Rural	21.19	43
Urban	20.72	57
F Value - .392		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .54		

TABLE A.26

SATISFACTION WITH PUBLIC IN RURAL/URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Means	N
Rural	23.37	43
Urban	25.44	57
F Value - 2.85		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .09		

TABLE A.27

SATISFACTION WITH PROMOTIONS IN
RURAL/URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Means	N
Rural	14.60	43
Urban	15.46	57
F Value - 2.29		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .13		

TABLE A.28
SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISORS IN
RURAL/URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Means	N
Rural	21.47	43
Urban	21.56	57
F Value - 21.47		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .89		

TABLE A.29
JOB SATISFACTION IN RURAL/URBAN AREAS
N=100

Area	Means	N
Rural	122.42	43
Urban	123.09	57
F Value - .054		
d.f. - 1		
P:F - .018		

TABLE A.30
STRESS AND ROLE SCALE
N=100

Role Scale Scores	N	Stress Score Means
65	1	28.00
72	1	38.00
74	1	40.00
77	3	26.00
79	3	29.67
80	4	33.25
81	2	39.00
82	4	26.25
83	2	40.50
84	3	33.00
85	1	44.00
86	3	33.00
87	4	27.00
89	4	30.00
90	2	26.50
91	5	34.00
92	6	33.83
93	1	25.00
94	12	32.33
95	6	31.83
96	2	28.00
97	3	41.67
98	3	32.00
99	1	40.00
100	2	38.00
101	1	29.00
102	5	27.40
103	6	36.17
105	1	41.00
107	2	29.00
108	3	29.33
111	3	28.00
F Value - .77		
d.f. - 31		
P:F - .79		

TABLE A.31
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
N=100

	Stress	Roles	Wk.Sat	Sup.Sat	Cowk.Sat	Pub.Sat	Pay Sat	Pro.Sat	Job Sat
Age	-0.278 P: .005	-0.124 .218	-0.095 .649	+0.003 .972	+0.001 .986	+0.126 .208	-0.318 .002	+0.102 .316	-0.007 .946
Stress	1.000 P: 0.000	0.003 .971	-0.240 .016	-0.405 .0001	-0.295 .003	-0.359 .0005	-0.833 .585	-0.285 .004	-0.452 .0001
Roles	0.003 P: .971	1.000 0.000	-0.228 .021	-0.009 .928	-0.120 .234	-0.209 .034	-0.029 .771	-0.291 .004	-0.231 .019
Wk.Sat	0.240 P: .016	0.228 .021	1.000 0.000	0.239 .016	0.387 .0002	0.362 .0004	0.230 .020	0.266 .008	0.607 .0001
Sup.Sat	0.405 P: .0001	0.008 .928	0.239 .016	1.000 0.000	0.339 .0009	0.269 .007	0.075 .535	0.300 .003	0.575 .0001
Cowk.Sat	0.295 P: .003	0.112 .234	0.387 .0002	0.339 .0009	1.000 0.000	0.285 .004	0.313 .002	0.309 .002	0.666 .0001
Pub.Sat	0.359 P: .0005	0.209 .034	0.362 .0004	0.269 .007	0.285 .004	1.000 0.000	0.169 .089	0.479 .001	0.772 .0001
Pay Sat	0.083 P: .585	0.029 .771	0.230 .020	0.075 .536	0.313 .002	0.169 .089	1.000 0.000	0.338 .0009	0.487 .0001
Pro.Sat	0.285 P: .004	0.291 .004	0.266 .008	0.300 .003	0.309 .002	0.480 .0001	0.339 .0009	1.000 0.000	0.680 .0001
Job Sat	0.453 P: .0001	0.232 .019	0.607 .0001	0.575 .0001	0.666 .0001	0.666 .0001	0.772 .0001	0.680 .0001	1.000 0.000
DecMking	-0.147 P: .139	-0.147 .141	+0.148 .139	-0.180 .853	+0.100 .679	+0.119 .235	+0.003 .972	+0.061 .549	+0.114 .256

Police Officer's Interview

Type Org

1. Length of police service? _____ 2. Rank Title _____
 yr mo
 3. How long held rank? _____ 4. Race _____ 5. Age _____
 6. Sex _____ 7. Income _____ 8. Place of birth _____
 9. Place of residence _____
 10. How long a resident _____
 11. Marital Status: a. Married _____ b. Never Married _____
 c. Div. _____ d. Widowed _____
 e. Sep. _____ f. How long married _____
 g. Does wife work: Yes _____ No _____
 h. Wife's job title _____
 12. Number of children: _____ Ages _____
 13. Do you have a "moonlighting" job? a. Yes _____ b. No _____
 14. Education: a. Highest grade completed _____
 15. Military Service: a. Yes _____ b. No _____ c. Branch _____
 16. Church Membership: a. Yes _____ b. No _____ c. Which _____
 d. How often attend: _____
 (times per month)
 e. Do you have any church duties or offices? Yes _____
 No _____ If yes, which? _____

17. Are you a registered voter? a. Yes ___ b. No ___
 c. When was the last time you voted? _____
 Did you vote in the last Presidential election?
 Yes ___ No ___

18. Are you a member of any social, civic or professional organizations? a. Yes ___ b. No ___
 If yes, please list: _____

19. List the last three jobs held before becoming a policeman:
 a. _____
 b. _____
 c. _____

20. What was your Father's occupation? _____
 Mother's occupation? _____

II. Job Satisfaction. Job Description Index. Subject asked to put "Y" beside an item if the item described the particular aspect of his job; "N" if the item did not describe that aspect; or "?" if he could not decide.

<u>Work</u>	<u>Supervision</u>
___ Fascinating	___ Asks my opinion
___ Routine	___ Hard to please
___ Satisfying	___ Impolite
___ Boring	___ Praises good work
___ Good	___ Backs up my decisions
___ Creative	___ Influential
___ Respected	___ Up-to-date
___ Hot	___ Doesn't supervise enough
___ Pleasant	___ Quick-tempered
___ Useful	___ Tells me where I stand
___ Tiresome	___ Not truthful
___ Healthful	___ Stubborn
___ Challenging	___ Knows job well
___ On your feet	___ Bad
___ Frustrating	___ Intelligent
___ Simple	___ Helps when needed
___ Endless	___ Trusts my work
___ Gives sense of accomplishment	___ Lazy

<u>Co-Workers</u>	<u>Public</u>
___ Helpful	___ Helpful
___ Avoids danger	___ Respectful
___ Slow	___ Hostile
___ Ambitious	___ Understanding
___ Can't trust	___ Cynical
___ Responsible	___ Sneaky
___ Supportive	___ Discourteous
___ Intelligent	___ Friendly
___ Makes enemies easy	___ Disappointing
___ Talks too much	___ Cooperative
___ Smart	___ Doesn't like police
___ Lazy	___ Trusts police
___ Unpleasant	___ Indifferent
___ Not dependable	___ Supportive
___ under stress	___ Appreciative
___ Active	___ Not involved
___ Narrow interests	___ Suspicious of police
___ Loyal	___ Unpleasant
___ Quick-tempered	

<u>Pay</u>
___ Income adequate for normal expenses
___ Income better than average
___ Barely live on income
___ Bad
___ Income provides luxuries
___ Insecure
___ Less than I deserve
___ Highly paid
___ Underpaid
___ Couldn't make it if wife didn't work

<u>Promoting</u>
___ Good opportunity for advancement
___ Opportunity somewhat limited
___ Promotion on ability
___ Dead-end job
___ Good chance for promotion
___ Unfair promotion policy
___ Infrequent promotions
___ Regular promotions
___ Fairly good chance for promotion

III. Job Stress

All of us occasionally feel bothered by certain kinds of things in our work. I'm going to read a list of things that sometimes bother people, and I would like you to tell me how frequently you feel bothered by each of them.

N=Never R=Rarely S=Sometimes O=Rather Often
A= Nearly All the Time

	N	R	S	O	A
A. Feeling that you have too little authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to you.					
B. Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of your job are.					
C. Not knowing what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for you.					
D. Feeling that you have too heavy a work load, one that you can't possibly finish during an ordinary workday.					
E. Thinking that you'll not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people over you.					
F. Feeling that you're not fully qualified to handle your job.					
G. Not knowing what your supervisor thinks of you, how he evaluates your performance.					
H. The fact that you can't get information needed to carry out your job.					
I. Having to decide things that affect the lives of individuals.					
J. Feeling that you may not be liked and accepted by the people you work with.					
K. Feeling unable to influence your immediate supervisor's decisions and actions that affect you.					
L. Not knowing just what the people you work with expect of you.					

- M. Feeling that you have too much responsibility and authority delegated to you by your superiors.
- N. Feeling that you have to do things on the job that are against your better judgment.
- O. Feeling that your job tends to interfere with your family life.

N	R	S	O	A

IV. Roles. I have a list of police duties I'd like to read to you. Please indicate how often you perform these duties in the course of a week, by day or night shift.

- A. Law Enforcement
 - 1. Serving Warrants -- Day:
Night:
 - 2. Arresting Offenders
 - 3. Traffic Control
 - 4. Investigation of:
 - a. Street disputes
 - b. Family disputes
 - c. Neighborhood disp. or complaints
 - d. Business complaints
 - 5. Transporting Prisoners
 - 6. Court Appearances
 - 7. Receiving Station Instructions
 - 8. Training
 - 9. Felony in progress calls
 - 10. Felony complaints
- B. Peacekeeping/Crime Prevention
 - 1. Patrol by area
 - 2. Responding to requests for assistance
 - 3. Public Safety (fire, crowds, events)
 - 4. Protection of property

[illegible]

4. Do you feel that your decisions made in the field will be backed up by your supervisors?
Yes___ No___ Don't Know___
5. How would you rank the supervisors in your department?
Excellent___ Good___ Fair___ Poor___ Don't Know___
6. Are you satisfied with the equipment provided by the department to do your job?
Yes___ No___ Don't Know___
7. Any other comments about your supervisors?

VII. Decision-Making and Discretionary Power

As you know, most policemen do not make every arrest they lawfully could. Do you use any of the following factors to help you make your decision to arrest or not to arrest (letting go with warning, etc.)?

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------------|--------|-------|
| A. attitude of offender | Yes___ | No___ |
| B. age | Yes___ | No___ |
| C. dress | Yes___ | No___ |
| D. speech | Yes___ | No___ |
| E. race | Yes___ | No___ |
| F. sex | Yes___ | No___ |
| G. law | Yes___ | No___ |
| H. type of offense | Yes___ | No___ |
| I. departmental policy | Yes___ | No___ |
| J. presence of partner or other officer | Yes___ | No___ |
| K. position of offender in community | Yes___ | No___ |
| L. Other | _____ | |

Comments: _____

VIII. Role

- A. Of all of the important duties that you perform, what in your opinion, are the most important three. List in rank order of importance.
 1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
- B. What is your biggest complaint with your employment with the police/sheriff's department?
- C. What do you like BEST about being a police officer in this department?

- D. Have you ever fired your weapon in the line of duty? Yes___ No___
- E. Under what circumstances?

SUPERVISOR'S INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Schedule # _____
 Area _____
 Type Org _____

I. Same as Police Officer's Schedule

- II. A. What, in your opinion, are the most important duties your officers perform? Please rank order.
1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
- B. What qualities do you look for in a man when you are recruiting?
- C. Should police officers call upon other social service agencies in the community to provide help for the citizens they come in contact with?
- D. Do you think the public understands or appreciates the job the police are doing?
- E. What criteria do you use to promote or give pay raises?
- F. Do you give your men specific instructions as to how much lee-way they have to personally make decisions to arrest or not to arrest, or do you leave it to their own judgment?
- G. What kind of training do you think is most important to police officers under your command?
1. _____
 2. _____
 3. _____
- H. I realize that there are severe political problems and perhaps it's unrealistic, but would it be more efficient and less costly, in your opinion, if there were a consolidation of city police and sheriffs departments?
- I. You are in a very important and sensitive position in the community and are probably called upon to help in various community problems, personal and

otherwise. Without giving any specific names of individuals, what type of person or organization tries to influence you and your work the most?

- J. What other governmental offices or community organizations are the MOST important to the efficient management of your department?

VITAE

Jenny Eva Decker Phillips was born October 25, 1925 in Paducah, Kentucky. She is the wife of R. C. Phillips, Jr., of Haynesville, Louisiana, and is the mother of four sons. After rearing her family, Mrs. Phillips entered Louisiana Tech University, Ruston, Louisiana, in September, 1965, graduating summa cum laude in May, 1968 with the B.A. degree in Social Welfare. She received her M.A. degree in American History from Louisiana Tech University in May, 1969.

Mrs. Phillips teaches in the Sociology and Anthropology Department at Grambling State University, Grambling, Louisiana, where she is a member of the graduate council, Chairman of the Graduate Faculty Committee, serves on the Curriculum Committee for Criminal Justice Programs, and is co-director of the Criminal Justice Internship Program. She also serves on the Committee on Training and Education of the Louisiana Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Criminal Justice.

Mrs. Phillips is a member of Phi Kappa Phi, Alpha Kappa Delta, and Pi Gamma Mu, academic honorary societies. She is also a member of the American Corrections Association, Mid-South Sociological Association, Southwestern Sociological Association, and the Louisiana Conference on

Social Welfare. She is presently a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Sociology, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

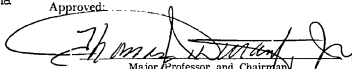
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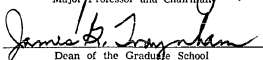
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Major Field: Sociology

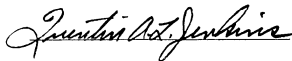
Title of Thesis: A Sociological Analysis of Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction of Police in Selected Rural and Urban Parishes in Louisiana

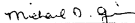
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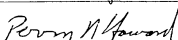

Major Professor and Chairman


Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:









Date of Examination:

July 20, 1976